HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH POSSESSIONS

IN THE

INDIAN & ATLANTIC OCEANS;

COMPRISING

CEYLON, PENANG, MALACCA, SINCAPORE,
THE FALKLAND ISLANDS, ST. HELENA, ASCENSION, SIERRA
LEONE, THE GAMBIA, CAPE COAST CASTLE, &c. &c.

BY

R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN, F.S.S.

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BRITISH POSSESSIONS

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INDIAN OCEAN;

COMPRISING

CEYLON, PENANG, MALACCA, AND SINCAPORE.

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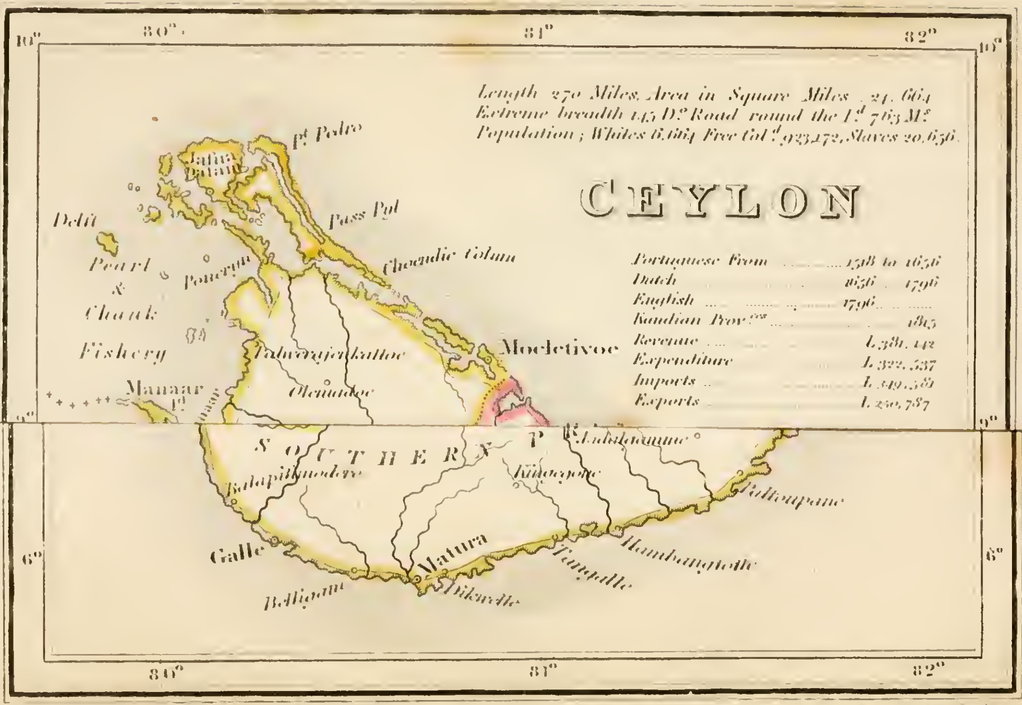

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CEYLON,

&c.

BOOK I.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHY—AREA—GENERAL HISTORY, &C.

Ceylon (*Selan, Singhala, Lanka, Serendib,* or *Taprobane*), situate between the parallels of 5.56. to 9.50. north latitude, and from 80. to 82. east longitude, is one of the most magnificent islands on the face of the globe; in shape it is somewhat ovate; the extreme length is about 270 miles from north to south, with an extreme breath of 145 miles (an average of 100), a circuit of 750 miles, and a superficial area of about 24,664 square miles.

General History.—The original Singhalese, or Ceylonese, are probably descended from a colony of Singhs, or Rajpoots (to whom, in appearance, even at the present day, they bear a striking resemblance) 500 years B.C. But the Malabars, it is stated, several times succeeded in invading the island 200 years B.C. Mr. George Turnour in his erudite epitome of the history of Ceylon, derived from Pali and

Singhalese records, begins his chronology 543 years before the birth of our Saviour, and names the first king, Wejaya, who landed on the island with 700 followers, and founded a government at Tamananowera; but Mr. Turnour does not state whether the Pali accounts remark if the island was then inhabited. At an early era the island seems to have attracted the attention of the western world; thus Dionysius, the geographer, mentions Taprobane (its ancient and classic name) as famous for its elephants; Ovid speaks of it as a place so far distant that it could be no advantage to have his fame extended thither; Pliny thought it the commencement of another continent, and extolled it for the purity of its gold and the size of its pearls. In the reign of Claudius, a Roman, who farmed (says the Rev. Mr. Fellows) the customs in the Red Sea, was driven in his bark by a gale of wind from the coast of Arabia to Taprobane, where he received a most favourable reception, and so extolled the glory of the imperial city that the sovereign of Taprobane sent to Rome an embassy of four persons *via* the Red Sea. We have existing evidence that, in remote ages, Ceylon was an extensively peopled and civilized country (it has now only fifty-eight mouths to the square mile). Near Mantotte are the ruins of a very large city, constructed of brick and mortar, and an immense artificial tank, or reservoir for water, the basin of which is sixteen or eighteen miles in extent; an embankment about nine miles from the tank is formed of huge stones, eight feet long, four feet broad, and three feet thick (these are cemented together by lime), the

length of the dam is 600 feet, the breadth about sixty, and the height from eight to twelve feet. This gigantic work is said to have been executed by the Hindoos, who made Mantotte the capital of a kingdom which they established over the northern parts of the island. Of an antiquity, however, more remote than the foregoing, are various buildings and works towards the interior, constructed of vast stones, elegantly cut and dovetailed-like into each other. No mortar has been used in some of the edifices which still exist (as if in defiance of the ravaging hand of time), with visible inscriptions on them, which no existing human being can understand. Among the works of this remote age is the Lake of Kandely, near Trincomalee, which is fifteen miles in circumference, formed by the artificial junction of two hills, which in one part in particular exhibits a parapet formed of huge blocks of stone, twelve to fourteen feet long, and broad and thick in proportion. This parapet is at the base 150 feet broad, and at the summit thirty feet. By means of this wonderful structure the adjoining high lands are connected.

It is also singular that arches are to be found in the parapet, and over them conduits, similar to those used by the Romans in Italy, and termed *condottori*.

Belonging also to this age is a gigantic pagoda (forty miles south of Batticaloa), the base of whose cone is a quarter of a mile in circumference, surrounded by an enclosure one mile in circumference, consisting of a broad wall of brick and mortar, with numerous cells in it, and an entering colonnade of stone pillars ten feet high.

Mr. Brooke, in tracing the course of the Maha Villagunga in 1825, came on the ruined tracks of several very extensive canals, one of which he estimated to have been from five to fifteen feet deep, and from forty to 100 feet wide. The natives told him that this canal was cut by people whose stature was forty feet high! The largest recorded bridge was one in the southern part of the island, stated to be 280 cubits (630 feet) long; the next in size was 193 feet long, across the Kaloo-Ganga, on the road from Adam's Peak to Bentotte. The remains of a stone bridge exist near the Fort of Kalawo Oya, the stones of which are from eight to fourteen feet long, jointed into one another and laid in regular lines, the upright pillars being grooved into the rocks below; this bridge was built 1500 years ago, and Captain Forbes demonstrated that the Singalese, at that remote period, used the wedge and chisel for splitting and shaping those huge blocks of stone, after the manner which has also been introduced into Britain in the nineteenth century.

It is recorded in ancient manuscripts that, Anorajhapoora, the ancient Cingalese capital, was surrounded by a wall sixteen miles square, and indeed a list of streets of the city is still in existence. To the north of the ruins of this place, are six pagodas of immense magnitude, the form being half a sphere with a spire built on it; the two largest are each 270 feet high, of solid brick-work, once entirely covered with chunam (lime polished like marble), the solid contents of one of the largest is about 456,071 cubic yards, and with the materials of which it is

composed, a wall of brick might be constructed twelve feet high, two feet wide, and ninety-seven miles long; the roofs are composed of curiously carved rafters of wood, and the expense and labour employed in the whole of the structures must have been immense. In the ancient histories of Trincomalee it is stated by Sir Alexander Johnston that two kings of Solamandelum, Manumethy Candesolam, and his son Kalocarta Maharasa, reigned over the greater part of Ceylon, and over the southern peninsula of India, about the 512th year of the Cadi Yug, or 4400 years ago, who constructed the great buildings and tanks, the remains of which are yet extant.

But we must leave these remote ages and come to some later period. In the sixth century Ceylon was the chief mart for eastern commerce. In the sixteenth year of the reign of Praakrama Bahoo the First, (A.D. 1153,) this Singalese monarch sent a fleet of 500 ships, with an army on board, and provisioned for twelve months, to avenge the insults offered to the Singalese ambassador and to Singalese merchants by the King of Cambodiae and Arramana. This vast fleet was equipped in six months. In the thirteenth century it was visited by Marco Polo, who pretty accurately narrated the particulars of the island, which he described as 'the finest in the world.' The central situation of Ceylon had led to its port being frequented by ships from China, India, Arabia, &c. by which means Galle and Columbo, from their favourable situation, became intrepôts for the general commerce of the east. When the Portuguese first

visited the island, A.D. 1505, they found it had for a long period been declining, owing to intestine wars, and invasions from Malabar and Arabia; the Cingalese King availed himself of the assistance of the Portuguese Admiral (Almeida) for the expulsion of the invaders, promising in return an annual tribute in cinnamon. In 1518, the Portuguese, under Alvarenga, began to fortify themselves in Columbo, Galle, &c., and soon after they obtained complete possession of the maritime provinces, and drove the King of Kandy to such extremities, that he was glad to retain even possession of the interior provinces.

For a century the Portuguese held their sway, when in 1603, the first Dutch fleet arrived at Trincomalee and Batticaloa, and offered to assist the King of Kandy against the Portuguese. In 1632, a strong Dutch armament, acting in conjunction with the King of Kandy's forces, commenced a series of contests with the Portuguese, and after a long and sanguinary struggle, which lasted until 1656-7, the latter were finally driven from an island, of the sea coast of which they had been masters for nearly 150 years.

The Cingalese, however, soon found that they had exchanged masters to no advantage, for from 1656 to 1796, the Dutch were engaged in a series of perpetual hostilities with their mountain neighbours. The conduct of the French republican government to Holland towards the close of the last century, induced the Dutch to acquiesce in our apparent forcible occupation in 1796 of Columbo, Galle, Trincomalee, &c., but as regards the Kandians, we were not more

fortunate than our predecessors, for in 1799, soon after the elevation of a new king to the Kandian throne, we became involved in hostilities, which led to our capture of the Kandian capital in 1803.

As this circumstance led eventually to our total occupation of the island, it may be satisfactory to give an abridgment of a memorandum on the affairs of Ceylon, prepared from the official documents in Calcutta in 1803, and which I have just now (Sept. 1837) among the Marquess Wellesley's papers.

A short time after the return from Madras to Ceylon of Mr. North, in July, 1799, there was reason to believe that the court of Kandy began to entertain suspicions of the intentions of the British government, in consequence of an embassy which it had been taught to expect, not having been sent to that Court. These suspicions were increased by the measures which were adopted by Mr. North to place the Malay corps on a respectable footing, and at last assumed so serious an appearance, as to induce Mr. North to send a confidential native agent for the purpose of demanding an explanation from the first Adigaar, or minister of the government of Kandy.

In consequence of this communication, the first Adigaar requested Mr. North to grant him an audience at Setaraca, on the frontiers, as he had something to communicate which was of the greatest importance to the British government.

Accordingly an interview took place on the 5th of January, 1800, between Mr. North and the first adigaar. Previously to this interview Mr. North had reason to think, from the information of the native agent whom he had deputed to Kandy, that the object of the first adigaar was to establish an English military force in Kandy, and to pay for it a tribute in Arekaput, and other productions, to the British government, and that this military force was to protect his own power, together with that of his nominal master the King of Kandy, in whose

name it was supposed the first adigaar intended to continue to govern the kingdom.

At the interview however on the 5th of January, 1800, the first proposal made by the adigaar to Mr. North was to depose the reigning king, who had been placed on the throne [1] by the first adigaar in direct violation of the laws of the kingdom of Kandy. This proposal was rejected in the most positive manner, as Mr. North very justly did not think himself warranted to join in a conspiracy against a prince in perfect amity with the British government, and who had been recognized by Mr. North as the legitimate sovereign, on the grounds of his being in possession of the throne on Mr. North's accession to the government of Ceylon.

But although Mr. North did not think himself justified in contributing in any degree to the deposition of the King of Kandy, he was not disposed to insist on that Prince's retaining any large portion of authority in his dominions, and conceived that he provided much more effectually for the king's security and happiness by placing him under the protection of a British military force, than by leaving him in the hands of a daring and ambitious minister, or of a faction which had proclaimed him an illegitimate usurper.

Mr. North, therefore, felt no hesitation to promise the adi-

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[1] This event took place about the year 1798. The account given by the adigaar was, that the country had formerly been inhabited by *devils*, who had been expelled by *Seredïn*. From this period a regular succession of kings of the Cingalese race followed for ages. These in return were afterwards expelled by the accession to the throne of Kandy of the race of Malabar kings. About the year 1781, the adigaar's brother, who had also been adigaar, placed on the throne a prince of Malabar extraction; and in 1798 the present adigaar, in the midst of civil discord, succeeded in obtaining the throne for the reigning prince, although he had no legal pretensions to it, and was, in fact, illegitimate.

gaar support ' in obtaining all authority *short of royalty* in the country, in case he should be able to prevail on the King to ask for a British subsidiary force, and to put himself and his country under the British protection.'

Mr. North in this conference informed the first adigaar of his intention to send General Macdowall as ambassador to the King of Kandy with valuable presents. General Macdowall was instructed to negotiate the treaty with the King of Kandy which was founded on the principles stated in the conference which took place between the first adigaar and Mr. North, on the 5th of January, 1800, to which the first adigaar had agreed, and which he had promised to carry into effect. Another important object of the embassy was to obtain a perfect knowledge of the situation of the court of Kandy, which was essential to the improvement of our general interests, as well as to prevent the dangers which it was apprehended would attend the implicit observance, on the part of Mr. North, of the directions of the first adigaar, whose intentions, Mr. North ' knew to be atrocious, and such as he could never abet.'

General Macdowall arrived on the frontier of Kandy on the 20th of March, 1800, where, according to appointment, he met the first adigaar, accompanied by two officers of inferior rank, and by a great number of followers.

On the 8th of April, General Macdowall arrived at Gunarora, and on the 9th had his first audience of the King of Kandy. He was received with every demonstration of respect and kindness, and soon after his audience entered on the subject of his mission.

The treaty proposed by General Macdowall, embraced the following objects.

1. The preservation of the reigning king.

2. The permanent establishment of a British force in the Kandian territories.

3. The obtaining some commercial advantages.

4. The prevention of immediate bloodshed and future civil war, by the delivery of the chiefs of the persecuted party into the hands of the British government.

5. The procuring the administration of the revenues of the

country, or at least such powers, as might prevent the continuance of the wretched system which had hitherto prevailed, to the detriment of its natural resources.

The treaty, however, was rejected by the ministers of the court of Kandy, who proposed a counter project nearly similar to one which had been formerly offered to the government of Madras. The general refused to enter on the discussion of this counter project, and demanded his audience of leave. The ministers then consented to the proposed treaty, with the exception of the article which provided for the establishment of a considerable body of troops near the town of Kandy. They wished to reduce this number to 400, but as such a modification was little calculated to afford security to the British territories, Major-General Macdowall declined the proposal and quitted the town of Kandy.

The ministers also rejected three modified proposals from Mr. North, and the negociation here terminated.

The motives which induced Mr. North to declare war against the King of Kandy are explained in a declaration published at Colombo on the 29th January, 1803; it will therefore be sufficient to observe, that a force was assembled at Colombo amounting to 1700 men, under the command of Major-General Macdowall, and another detachment at Trincomalee, amounting to 1200 men, under the orders of Lieutenant-Colonel Barbut. In his letter to Lord Clive of the 30th January, 1803, Mr. North specifically states '*that he should not* have occasion to trouble Lord Clive for troops, unless he should be obliged to make a second campaign, which considering the force assembled, the moderation of Mr. North's views, and the disposition of the principal head men, and the people in general on the Kandian territories, who were desirous of co-operating with the British troops, or at least of not acting against them, was not (Mr. North trusted) probable.'

On the 28th of January, 1803, Mr. North addressed a letter to the King of Kandy, submitting to his Majesty the declaration of the causes and objects of the entrance of his troops into the territories of his Majesty, together with the articles of a pacific convention proposed to be concluded between his Ma-

jesty and the nobles of the court of Kandy, on the one part, and the government of Ceylon on the other.

This convention stipulated for a compensation for the loss sustained by the merchants of Putelam, as well as for the expenses incurred on account of the military preparations, for the security of the payment of which the King of Kandy was immediately to cede to his Britannic Majesty the province of the Seven Corles. By the convention it was also proposed that the King of Kandy should recognise the sovereignty of his Britannic Majesty over all the territories lately occupied by the Dutch in the island of Ceylon, and ceded by them in conformity to the stipulations of the peace of Amiens to his Britannic Majesty; that the government of Ceylon should be permitted to form a road across the territories of Kandy between Colombo and Trincomalee; that British troops, with their guns and artillery, should be allowed to pass along this road without molestation, and that the government of Ceylon should be allowed to establish resting-places and post-houses along the proposed road; that the King of Kandy should permit, (for the benefit of both countries,) a communication by water, if practicable, to be made across the island, under the direction of the British government, and allow such measures to be taken as might render the rivers more navigable for the advantage of both parties; that the King of Kandy should also engage for himself, heirs, and successors not to enter into any negociation with any foreign power without the concurrence of the Governor of Ceylon; and that his Britannic Majesty, through the Governor of Ceylon, recognized the King of Kandy, his heirs, and successors, and engaged to furnish a quota of troops whenever the King of Kandy might require them, on his paying for their maintenance while employed in his service. The remainder of the convention related to points of internal economy, and do not require to be stated in this narrative.

The King having refused to accede to the terms offered to his acceptance in Mr. North's letter of the 28th of January, hostilities commenced on the 19th of February, by the attack and capture by Colonel Hogan, of the fifty-first regiment, of two strong posts called Galle Gederah and Geriagamme. On the

same day, Colonel Barbut, of his Majesty's seventy-third regiment, advanced with a detachment towards the great Candian river, the banks of which, together with the village of Wallapoola and the neighbouring hills, were occupied by the enemy in force. A few shots from two mortars and one six-pounder soon, however, compelled the Kandians to retire, and the detachment crossed the river on the morning of the 20th of February, and took possession of the village of Wallapoola, situated within an English mile and a half of the town of Kandy.

General Macdowall marched into Kandy on the evening of the 20th, and found it totally deserted, the King having left it with the adigaar on the 19th February, removed all the treasure from the palace, and the inhabitants from their houses. Prior to his flight, the King caused the magazines to be blown up, and set fire to his palace, and to the principal temples.

The King, it appears, retired into the distant province of Oora, to the south-west. As he refused to accept the terms offered to him by Mr. North, and did not even propose to negociate with General Macdowall, but after the delay of a fortnight answered Mr. North's letter to him without taking the least notice of the conditions which Mr. North had offered to his acceptance, Mr. North tendered the abdicated throne to Prince Budha Sawmy, the rightful heir, who would have succeeded to it on the demise of the last King, if the intrigues of the adigaar had not intruded the present fugitive prince, in the intention of deposing him to make way for himself. Colonel Barbut was, in consequence, detached soon after the capture of Kandy for the purpose of escorting him to that capital.

About this period a dreadful endemial fever broke out in the interior of the island, and deprived the public service of several valuable military officers, and a very large proportion of the European troops employed in the late service. This most fatal malady appeared under the form of a very bad bilious remittent, and was attended with nearly the same symptoms in all cases. The extent of the disease will be fully comprehended by the following facts:—The 51st regiment, which marched from Colombo 560 strong, lost before its return one

fifth of the men, besides having 170 men sick in the hospital. A detachment of the 65th regiment, consisting of one captain, three subalterns, and eighty men, employed in keeping open the communication with Kandy, and covering a depôt of stores and provisions, lost 27 men, besides having 50 in the hospital: of the four officers, one died, and two returned dangerously ill. The native troops, however, did not suffer in an equal proportion; and it is a curious circumstance that a journey of eight or ten miles from the sea coast should lead to a country where the source of the endemial disease is so powerful as to affect almost every European constitution exposed to its influence.

A treaty was entered into between the new King and Mr. North, for the speedy restoration of peace, and the general security of the inhabitants of the island.

By this treaty it was stipulated that restoration should be made to Mootoo Sawmy of the town of Kandy, and all the possessions dependant on the crown of Kandy, then occupied by the British troops, excepting the province of the Seven Corles, the two hill-forts of Geriagamme and Gallegederah, and the line of land across the Kandian territories, sufficient to form a direct road from Colombo to Trincomalee, which province, forts, &c. were ceded to his Britannic Majesty, in perpetual sovereignty.

Provision was made for the identification of the interests of the British Government, and of Mootoo Sawmy. The British Government agreed to recognize Mootoo Sawmy as the legitimate sovereign of Kandy, as soon as he had assumed that title with the usual solemnities, and consented, under certain subsidiary engagements, to maintain, for the preservation of his authority, a British force whenever it might be required. The remaining articles provided for the future intercourse between the subjects of the two states, for the regulation of the internal duties and commerce, the safety and maintenance of the King lately on the throne, and for the residence at Kandy, whenever it might be required, of a public minister, on the part of the British Government.

It also appears that, after the conclusion of this treaty, Mr. North determined to hold a conference with the two adigaars

of Kandy, for the purpose of procuring their consent to the establishment of a secure and permanent peace. In consequence of this resolution, Mr. North left Colombo on the 28th of April, and reached Dombaderria on the 1st of May.

On the 3rd of May a conference took place at Mr. North's bungalo, in which it was proposed that the adigaars and the principal nobles of Kandy should become parties to the treaty lately concluded between the British government and the Prince Mootoo Sawmy, on certain additional conditions, which, after some discussion, were finally agreed to by the adigaars, and sealed, signed, and delivered by the respective parties on the following day.

This convention stipulated that the new King Mootoo Sawmy should deliver over [1] the administration of the province belonging to the crown of Kandy to the first adigaar, with the title of grand prince, during the term of his natural life, and that he should reside at Jaffnapatam, or in such other part of the British territories, as might be agreed upon between Mootoo Sawmy and the British government; that the first adigaar should engage to pay an annual sum of 90,000 rix dollars for the maintenance of Mootoo Sawmy, and that for the better payment of this sum, as well as for the allowance proposed to be granted to the King lately on the throne of Kandy, the first adigaar should deliver to the British government, in the course of every year, a certain gratuity of arckanut (20,000 annually), taken at a specified valuation (six rix dollars per ammonam), the price of which should be paid to the agents of the first adigaar by the British government, in coined copper, or in such other articles as might be agreed upon between the

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[1] On account of the inertness of his own character, and the timidity of his friends, Mr. North says, 'if he consents by his own signature to exchange a turbulent power which he never could fully obtain, nor securely exercise, for the peaceable enjoyment of high power and an affluent income, we have no reason to oppose his wishes.'

parties, in which case the British government agreed to charge[1] itself with the payment of the allowances[2] stipulated for Mootoo Sawmy, and for the King lately on the throne.

That the first adigaar should cede in perpetuity to the British government the village and district of Gungavelle, now called Fort Macdowall, in exchange for the hill fort of Geriagamme, which the British government agreed to cede again to the first adigaar.

That all the princes and princesses of the royal family then in confinement should be set at liberty, and be allowed to retire with their property wherever they might think proper, and that a general amnesty should be observed on both sides to all who might have supported or opposed the claims of Mootoo Sawmy in the late or any former contest.

Finally, that the preceding articles should be carried into effect as soon as the Prince lately on the throne of Kandy should be delivered into the hands of the British government, and that until that event should take place, a perfect truce and cessation of hostilities should continue between all the contracting parties.

This truce continued until the month of June, when it was broken by the treachery of the Kandians, who, under the first adigaar, did not scruple to avail themselves of the first favourable opportunity to attack the British garrison at Kandy. The result of this transaction has been differently represented. The official account communicated by Mr. North to the Go-

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[1] The advantage of this arrangement was as follows:—The arcka was to be sold to the British government at six rix dollars per ammonam. That article, however, paid a duty on exportation of ten rix dollars, and sold at Colombo before the payment of that duty at from fourteen to eighteen rix dollars per ammonam. The clear gain to government, therefore, was about twenty rix dollars per ammonam for the whole quantity, viz. 20,000 ammonams is 360,000 rix dollars, after paying the specified allowance of 40,000 rix dollars.

[2] About 40,000 rix dollars.

vernor-General in Council is here stated, and such further reports are annexed from private sources of intelligence as may appear to throw any light on this melancholy and almost unexampled event.

It appears that Mr. North had already made preparations towards the middle of June for evacuating Kandy, and a detachment of Malays was on its march to that place from Trincomalee with a number of doolies to bring away the sick and wounded. The Governor of Ceylon had also agreed to a proposal from the adigaars to evacuate Kandy, provided the garrison might be permitted to retire unmolested.

Accordingly, Major Davie, commanding the garrison of Kandy, evacuated that place under a capitulation[1] with the first adigaar, on the 24th of June. He was permitted to retire with his arms and ammunition, and was promised every mark of attention; but no sooner had he commenced his march, than he was treacherously attacked, a party of his Malays deserted over to the enemy, and the whole of the British troops[2], with their officers, were most inhumanly murdered[3].

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[1] The force, in Mr. North's statement of the 7th July, amounted to 40 Europeans in good health, and 200 Malays. General Macdowall, on the 4th of July, states the British force to have amounted to about 200 Europeans and 800 natives; and Mr. North, in a letter of the 20th July, observes, that the loss may be estimated at 700 effective men. These contradictions are probably owing to Mr. North not having included the sick, which by all accounts appear to have been numerous, or the gun Lascars, &c.

[2] On the 4th July, 1803, 'not one man had escaped on whom General Macdowall could rely for an authentic account of this melancholy transaction. More than 100 gun Lascars were recovered in an action with the Kandian army at Hangwelle, on the 6th of September, 1803, and there is every reason to believe that Major Davie and Captains Humphreys and Rumley were not put to death, but were still in confinement at the date of the latest advices from Ceylon.'

[3] Return of names of those officers who are reported to have

The garrisons of Fort Macdowall, to the eastward, and of Dombarcia to the westward, of Kandy, refused to capitulate, and escaped from the enemy's country with inconsiderable loss.

Until 1815 we retained the maritime provinces, while the King of Kandy kept the interior, but in that year the monarch being deposed on account of his repeated acts of oppression and cruelty (one act was making the wife of his prime minister pound to death her own children in a rice mortar), General Brownrigg was invited by the Kandian chiefs to take possession of the interior, and excepting an expensive and troublesome insurrection, which lasted from 1817 to 1819, Ceylon has ever since had the British sway established over the whole island.

CAPTAINS-GENERAL AND GOVERNORS OF CEYLON, WHILST IN POSSESSION OF THE PORTUGUESE.

Pedro Lopez de Souza, Jerome de Azevedo, Francois de Menezes, Manuel Mascarenhas Homen, Nanha Alvares Pe-

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been put to death by the Kandians after the capitulation of Kandi, on the 24th of June, 1803 :—

Bengal Artillery.—Captain Richard Humphreys.

19*th Foot.*—Lieutenants M. H. Byne, Peter Plenderleith, Hector Maclain, Ensign Robert Smith, Quarter-master J. J. Brown, Assistant Surgeon William Hope.

51*st Foot.*—Lieutenant Ormsby.

Malay Regiment.—Major Adam Davie, Captain Edward Rumley, Lieutenant William Mercer, Ensigns Robert Barry, Louis Goupill, John Fanthome; Lieutenant Blackeney of the 19th regiment, commanding pioneer corps; Garrison Surgeon Holloway, Madras establishment.

RT. MOUBRAY,
Acting Deputy Adjt.-Gen.

The sick Europeans in hospital had their brains beat out with clubs and stones.

reira, Constantine de Say Noranha, D. George d'Almeida, George d'Albuque, Diego de Melho, Antoine Mascarenhas, Phillippe Mascarenhas, Manuel Mascarenhas Homen, Francois de Mello Castro, Antoine de Sousa Continho, under whose administration Colombo was surrendered to the Dutch; A. D. Mezely Menezes, last Captain-General, in command of Jaffna and Manar.

Governors, whilst in the possession of the Dutch.

At Galle.—William Jacobszen Coster, Commander at the surrender of that place; administration commenced 13th March, 1640. Jan Thysz, President and Governor, 1st Aug. 1640. Joan Matsuyker, Ordinary Counsellor and Governor, 24th May, 1646. Jacob Van Kittenstein, Governor, 26th February, 1650. Adrian Van der Meyden, Governor, 11th October, 1653.

Colombo.—Adrian Van der Meyden, Governor, 12th May, 1656. Ryklof Van Goens, Governor, 12th May, 1660. Jacob Hustaar, Extraordinary Counsellor of India, and Governor, 27th Dec. 1663. Ryklof Van Goens, Governor, from 19th Nov. 1664. Lourens Van Peil, Commander, President, Governor, and Extraordinary Counsellor of India, 3rd Dec. 1680. Thomas Van Rhee, Governor, 19th June, 1693. Paulus de Rhoo, appointed Governor and Director of Ceylon, 29th Jan. 1695. Gerrit de Heer, Governor, 22nd Feb. 1697. The members of the Council, 26th Nov. 1702. Mr. Cornelius Johannes Simonsz, Governor, May, 1763. Hendrick Becker, Governor, 22nd Dec. 1707. Mr. Isaak Augistin Rumph, Governor and Extraordinary Counsellor of India, 7th Dec. 1716. Arnold Moll, Commander at Galle, 11th June, 1723. Johannes Hertenberg, Governor, 12th January, 1724. Jan Paulus Shagen, Commander at Galle, 19th Oct. 1725. Petrus Vuyst, Governor and Extraordinary Counsellor of India, 16th Sept. 1726. Stephanus Versluys, Governor and Extraordinary Counsellor of India; administration commenced 27th Aug. 1729. Gualterus Woutersz, Commander of Jaffnapatam, 25th Aug. 1732. Jacob Christian Pielaat, Extraordinary Counsellor of India and Commissary, 21st Dec. 1732. Diederick Van Domburg, Go-

vernor, 21st Jan. 1734. Jan Maccara, Commander of Galle, 1st June, 1736. Gustaff Willem Baron Van Imhoff, Extraordinary Counsellor of India and Governor, 23d July, 1736. Willem Maurits Bruininck, Governor, 12th March, 1740. Daniel Overbeck, Governor and Extraordinary Counsellor of India, 3rd Jan. 1742. Julius Valentyn Stein Van Gollnesse, Extraordinary Counsellor of India, 11th May, 1743. Gerrard Van Vreeland, Extraordinary Counsellor of India and Governor, 6th March, 1751. Jacob de Jong, Commander of Jaffnapatam, administration commenced 26th Feb. 1751. Joan Gideon Loten, 30th Sept. 1752. Jan Schreuder, Counsellor and Governor of India, 17th March, 1757. Lubbert Jan Baron Van Eck, Governor (under whose administration Kandy was taken on the 19th Feb. 1763), 11th Nov. 1762. Anthony Mooyart, Commander of Jaffnapatam, 13th May, 1765. Iman Willem Falck, Governor, &c. 9th Aug. 1765. Willem Jacob Van de Graaf, Governor, &c. of India, 7th Feb. 1785. Joan Gerard Van Angelbeek, Governor, &c. under whose administration Colombo surrendered to the arms of his Britannic Majesty, on the 16th Feb. 1796.

English Governors.

The Hon. the Governor of Madras in Council; administration commenced 16th Feb. 1796. The Hon. Frederick North, 12th Oct. 1798. Lieut.-Gen. Right Hon. Sir Thomas Maitland, G.C.B. 19th July, 1805. Major-Gen. John Wilson, Lieut.-Governor, 19th March, 1811. General Sir Robert Brownrigg, Bart. G.C.B. 11th March, 1812. Major-Gen. Sir E. Barnes, K.C.B., Lieut.-Governor, 1st Feb. 1820. Lieut.-Gen. the Hon. Sir E. Paget, K.C.B. 2nd Feb. 1823. Major-Gen. Sir J. Campbell, K.C.B., Lieut.-Governor, 6th Nov. 1822. Lieut.-Gen. Sir E. Barnes, G.C.B. 18th Jan. 1824. Major-Gen. Sir J. Wilson, K.S.S. Lieut.-Governor, 13th Oct. 1831. The Right Hon. Sir Robert Wilmot Horton, Bart. G.C.B. 23rd Oct. 1831.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT, MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, &c.—CHIEF TOWNS—FORTS, &c.—GEOLOGY—SOIL, CLIMATE, &c.—ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND MINERAL KINGDOMS—CULTIVATION, STOCK, &c.

Favourably situate at the west entrance of the Bay of Bengal, Ceylon is separated on the north west from the Coromandel coast, by the Gulf of Manaar, [in breadth 62 miles,] and 150 miles distant from Cape Comorin; on the south and east its beautiful shores are laved by the Indian Ocean. The interior of the island is formed of ranges of high mountains, in general, not approaching nearer to the sea than 40 miles, with a belt of rich alluvial earth nearly surrounding the island, and well watered by numerous rivers and streams. A picturesque table land occupies the southern centre, and thence, towards the coast, is a continuous range of low hills, and elevated flat land extending nearly to the sea-shore. To the west the country is flat, and on the northern shore, broken into verdant rocky islets, and a peninsula named Jafnapatam. The lofty central division of the island varies in elevation above the level of the sea, from 1,000 to 6,000 feet, but the range of table land may be estimated at from 2,000 to 3,000 feet higher above the sea. The mountains run in general in continuous chains with the most lovely valleys the sun ever shone on between them; the hills clothed to the very summits with gigantic forests, from which issue magnificent cascades and

foaming cataracts, that form in the valleys placid rives and babbling brooks fringed with turfy banks, and all the beautiful verdure of the tropics. The heights above the sea, in English feet, of some of the principal mountains, &c. in the interior of Ceylon are (L by levelling; Δ by geodesical operations):—Upper Lake in Kandé, 1678, L.: Matteá Pattanna, the hill above it, 3192, Δ; Oorraggalle, the rocky ridge of Hantanné to the southward of the town, 4310, Δ; Hoonassgiria Peak, 4990, Δ; 'The Knuckles,' a part of the same chain, 5870, Δ; Highest point in the road leading through the Kaddooganawa Pass, 1731, L.; Adam's Peak, 7420, Δ; Nammoonnakoolle, near Baddoolla, 6740, Δ; Amboolluawa, near Gampalla, 3540, Δ; Pedrotallagalla, close to the Rest House of Nuwera Ellia, 8280, Δ; Diatalawé, near Hangooranketté, 5030, Δ; Alloogalle, near Amoonapooré, 3440, Δ.

Rivers.—The rivers, as may be expected, are numerous; in fact, the whole island abounds with perennial mountain streams, rivulets, and rivers, the latter more numerous on the south and west than on the north east. The principal are—the Maha-Villa-Gunga, which is navigable for boats, and rafts during a great part of the year, from Trincomalee (where it falls into the sea), nearly as far as Kandy (in the centre of the island), where its course is impeded by a ledge of rocks; the Calany Gunga, or Mutwal, is not inferior in importance to the former, and is the medium for much internal intercourse for 50 miles from Columbo to Ruanwelle; the Welawe and Gindora, &c., all of which serve rather the pur-

poses of irrigation than navigation. There is, however, an inland river navigation over 100 miles of picturesque country from Chilaw to Putlam, thirty miles north of Caltura.

Lakes.—There are a few lagunes on the table land, the principal advantage of which is, the abundant supplies of fish which they afford, and in irrigating the rice lands. In the maritime provinces, particularly in Batticaloa, the communication between one district and another is maintained by canals connecting extensive salt water lakes, which have embankments of a stupendous nature, constructed by the Cingalese three centuries before the Christian era. Small vessels from India may land their cargoes at Calpentyn in the Gulf of Manaar, and have them conveyed by canal to Colombo.

The ridge called, ' Adam's Bridge,' which may be said to connect Ceylon with the Peninsula, consists of a mass of loose sand, with no firm foundation of rock or clay to support it. The sand appears to be transported in great quantities from one side to the other of the ridge, according to the direction of the monsoon; for, in addition to the action of the surf, which washes it over to the lee side, where it is narrow,—in other parts, where it is broad, streams of it, in a dry state, are carried across by the wind itself, and deposited there. The channels through the strait are very shallow, and not more than sufficient for the small country boats to pass; but it is stated, in the records of the Dutch government at Ceylon, that a Dutch fleet once passed through the channels of Adam's Bridge to avoid a Danish fleet in chase of

them. It has been justly observed, that if such really were the case, the channels must have been in a very different state, as some parts of the 'bridge' are now dry, and a few feet of water is the greatest depth any where on it.

The principal channel now used by the Dhonies, and other small country boats, lies on the western side of the strait, on which channel some curious dams appear to have been formed by the action of the sea on the soft sand-stone. According to the records of the Pagoda of Ramisseram, it appears that this island was, about the close of the fifteenth century, connected with the Peninsula, at which time, it is recorded, that pilgrims passed over it on their way to the Pagoda.

It is proposed to deepen the principal channel, which probably might be accomplished for a moderate sum, so as to make it available not only for the coasting trade, but for large vessels, by which a great deal of time would be saved.

Colombo.—Ceylon may not inaptly be termed the Malta of the Indian Ocean; its commercial capital, Colombo, is situate on the south west coast, latitude 6°. 57′. north, longitude 80°. 0′. east, defended by a strong fort (built on a peninsula projecting into the ocean), measuring one mile and a quarter in circumference, having seven principal bastions of different sizes, connected by intervening curtains and defended by three hundred pieces of cannon. The fortress is nearly insulated, two thirds of the works being almost laved by the sea, and with the exception of two very narrow and strongly guarded

causeways, the remainder protected by a fresh water lake and a broad and deep ditch with a fine glacis. Four strong bastions are seaward, and three face the lake and command the narrow approach from the Pettah, or native town outside the walls. The sea itself is additional strength for the fortress, for on the extensive southern side the surf runs so high on a rocky shore, that any attempt at landing troops would be attended with certain destruction, and on the west side, where the sea is smoother, the approach is completely commanded by the batteries; and a projecting rock on which two compact batteries are placed, entirely protect the roadstead [1]; in fact the fortress of Colombo, properly defended, may be deemed impregnable against any force likely to be brought against it.

Trincomalee.—The maritime station of the island, (Colombo is the seat of government) is, in a political point of view, of the most importance, not merely as regards Ceylon, but from being, as Nelson justly described it from personal knowledge, 'the finest harbour in the world.' It is situate on the east shore, latitude 8. 32. north, longitude 81. 17. east, 150 north east from Colombo, (to which a fine road has just been opened) 128 miles, travelling distance from Kandy, and within two days' sail of Madràs [2].

Its physical aspect may be described as a narrow

[1] See large edition for sailing directions.

[2] Trincomalee is the port of refuge to ships obliged to put to sea when the stormy monsoon commences on the Coromandel coast and western side of the bay of Bengal; the port can be made in any season.

neck of land or isthmus, connecting the peninsula on which the fort of Trincomalee is built, (which juts out a considerable distance into the sea), to the main land; towards the W. this isthmus gradually expands itself into a plain of considerable extent, which is bounded on the S. E. by a ridge of lofty mountains, on the N.W. by low wooded hills, and on the W. at the distance of about a mile from the fort, by the inner harbour. As far as the eye can reach from the fort, excepting in the immediate neighbourhood of the bazaar, the country is covered with wood.

The scenery of the spot has been compared to Loch Katrine on a gigantic scale, (the vast harbour appearing land-locked) the grandeur of which cannot be surpassed; the fortifications sweep along the rocky coast upwards of a mile in length, encompassing the base of a steep hill on the sides connected with the adjacent land: the town and fort are placed at the bottom of a rock, and joined to a narrow neck of land running out towards the sea and separating the inner harbours from two outside bays, which lie on either shore of a three sided or cornered promontory.

'Dutch' and 'Back' bays are entirely commanded by the artillery on the south and north side of the fortified rock, and the mouth of the harbour is protected by Fort Ostenberg, situate on a mount three miles west of Trincomalee. No communication can take place with the promontory (the part that projects into the sea being protected by steep rocky cliffs) except through the well-covered gates of the fortress, and the best engineers have pronounced

their opinion of its impregnability if the place be well garrisoned.

Fort Frederick, where the European troops (consisting generally of four companies of a European regiment, a company of royal engineers and artillery, and detachments of the Ceylon rifles) are stationed, is a fortified neck of land projecting into the sea, separating Back Bay from Dutch Bay. The ground rises gradually from the glacis to the flag-staff, a height of about 300 feet, and then slopes towards the sea, till abruptly terminated by a perpendicular cliff, from which a plummet may be dropped to the water, a distance of 240 feet. The depth at the base is so great that a line-of-battle ship may pass close to it. None but military reside within the works. The prospect from the barracks towards the sea is only bounded by the horizon, whilst towards the land, the eye ranges over the splendid scenery of the inner harbour, Fort Ostenberg, and a long extent of wooded country.

Fort Ostenberg is near three miles from Fort Frederick, and is built on the termination of a ridge of hills that partly form the boundary of the inner harbour. The fort commands the entrance, and its base is washed by the sea on three sides; it also protects the dock-yard, which is immediately below it. A detachment of the Royal Artillery are quartered there, and a company of Europeans.

The vicinity of Trincomalee is a wild uncultivated country, abounding with game of all kinds, from a snipe to an elephant. Quail, jungle fowl, moose-deer, and monkeys, are found on the Fort Ostenberg

ridge. The Mahavilla Ganga, which runs past Kandy, empties itself into the sea not far from Trincomalee. It has lately been surveyed by Mr. Brooks, the master attendant, who reports favourably of its capabilities. It is navigable for some distance, and he is of opinion, that with a little expense it might be made so to within 40 miles of Kandy, and thereby open a water-communication by which the coffee, timber, and other produce of the interior could be brought to the sea-coast.

The harbour, beautifully diversified with islands covered with a luxuriant vegetation, is spacious enough for holding all the ships in the world, accessible at all seasons, and the depth of water within the bay of Trincomalee is so great, that in many places, not far from the shore, it is unfathomable, and vessels may lie close alongside the rocks in perfect safety. The rise and fall of the tide is not sufficient for wet docks; mariners prefer Back Bay to Dutch Bay, from its being easier of egress for one half the year.

Point de Galle is another strong fortress and excellent harbour, situate at the very southern extremity of the island, in latitude 6° 1′ north, longitude, 80° 10′ east, distant seventy-eight miles along the sea-shore, south-south-east from Colombo; the road, shaded the whole way by magnificent groups of cocoa nut trees, forming a belt from the water's edge to some distance inland. The fort is a mile and a quarter in circumference, on a low rocky promontory, commanding the narrow and intricate entrance leading to the inner harbour; the extensive

and substantial works are like those of Colombo, surrounded for the greater part by the ocean, and there is every convenience of water, &c. capable of enabling the fortress to stand an extended siege. The outer and inner harbours are spacious, and the inner secure at all seasons of the year [1].

But if the sea-coast be well defended, not less so is the interior; every hill is a redoubt, and the passes in the mountains might be defended by a resolute enemy, by rolling the stones off the summits of the heights. Kandy (in 7° 18′ north latitude, 80° 47′ east longitude [2]) the capital of the interior (eighty-five miles from, and 1600 feet above Colombo) is

[1] Both Monsoons here influence the winds and rains.

[2] Latitude and longitude of the principal places:—Basses (Great) latitude 6° 13′ 0″; longitude 81° 46′ 0″ Ditto, (Little) latitude 6° 24′ 30″; longitude 81° 55′ 0″. Batticoloa Road, latitude 7° 44′ 0″; longitude 81° 52′ 0″. Belligam Bay, latitude 5° 57′ 30″; longitude 80° 33′ 20″. Calamatta Bay, latitude 6° 47′; longitude 81° 2′ 58″. Colombo, latitude 6° 57′ 0″ longitude 86° 0′ 0″. Dodandowé Bay, latitude 6° 6′ 47″ longitude 80° 14′ 24″. Dondra Head, latitude 5° 55′ 15″; longitude 80° 42′ 50″. Foul Point, latitude 8° 30′ 27″; longitude 81° 30′ 12″. Galle, latitude 6° 1′ 46″; longitude 80° 20′ 0″. Gandore, latitude 5° 55′ 42″; longitude 80° 44′ 30″. Ham bantolle, latitude 6° 6′ 58″; longitude 81° 14′ 44″. Kandy, latitude 7° 18′ 0″, longitude 80° 49′ 0″. Thahawelle Bay, latitude 5° 59′ 30″; longitude 80° 52′ 15. Thattura, latitude 5° 56′ 26″; longitude 80° 40′ 7″. Nillewelle Bay, latitude 5° 7′ 37″; longitude 80° 50′ 21″. Point Pedro, latitude 9° 49′ 30″; longitude 80° 24′ 0″. Jangalle, latitude 6° 1′ 16″; longitude 80° 54′ 48″. Trincomalee, latitude 8° 33′ 0″; longitude 81° 24′ 0″. Vendelo's Inlet, latitude, 75° 70′; longitude 81° 44′ 0″.

situate at the head of an extensive valley, in an amphitheatre commanded by forts on the surrounding hills; the vale has but two accessible entrances, well guarded, and the city within four miles is nearly surrounded by a broad and rapid river, (the Maha-Villa Gunga) filled with alligators. Paradeinia bridge, which, during the past year has been thrown over the rapid and unfordable river Maha-Villa Gunga, consists of a single arch with a span of 205 feet, principally composed of satin wood; its height above the river at low water mark is sixty-seven feet, and the roadway is twenty-two feet wide. The arch is composed of four treble ribs, transversely distant from each other five feet from centre to centre; the sum of the depth of these ribs is four feet, which, with two intervals of two feet each, makes the whole depth of the arch eight feet; the arch beams, with the exception of those next the abutments, are sixteen to seventeen feet long and twelve inches thick, abutting against each other with an unbroken section, secured at the joints by the notched pieces which support the road-way, the latter being held in their position by means of cross ties below and above the arch, and immediately under the road-way: these cross ties, with the aid of diagonal braces, which are also locked into them, serve to give stability and firmness to the whole structure, which has no other material but timber in its construction.

The roads in the maritime country are through groves of cocoa-nut trees along the sea coast; carriage roads extend from Colombo as far as Chilaw to the northward, and from Colombo through Gallee

as far as Matura to the southward. The main road from Colombo to Kandy (the Simplon of the East, on which there is now a ' mail coach and four') is a work of stupendous magnitude; hills have been cut away, valleys filled up, and (near Kandy) a tunnel five hundred feet long cut through the mountain, while rapid and unfordable torrents and rivers have had elegant iron and wooden bridges thrown across them; a capital road has been opened between Trincomalee and Colombo, and before a few more years have elapsed, every town in the island will be connected by roads passable at all seasons.

Geology.—The island would seem to have been at no very distant period connected with the peninsula of Hindostan, from which it was probably separated by an irruption of the ocean. Uniformity of formation characterises Ceylon, the whole of the island, with few exceptions, consisting of primitive formations, the varieties of which are extremely numerous; the most prevailing species is granite or gneiss; the more limited are quartz, hornblende, dolomite, and a few others. The varieties of granite and gneiss are innumerable, passing often from one into another, occasionally changing their character altogether, and assuming appearances for which, in small masses, it would be extremely difficult to find appropriate names. Regular granite is not of very common occurrence; well formed gneiss is more abundant, but sienite is not common: pure hornblende, and primitive greenstone, are far from uncommon; and dolomite sometimes of a pure snow white, well adapted for the statuary, occasionally constitutes low hills in

the interior: limestone is principally confined to the northerly province of Jafnapatam, and the island appears to be surrounded by an interrupted chain, or belt of sandstone, interspersed with coral. The coral of the Pamban banks is not the zoophyte of the Mediterranean and the South Seas, but a light, porous, crumbling substance, sometimes cut and shaped into bricks by the Dutch; and more frequently burnt into lime. Of this species of lime the late fort of Negapatam was built; and so great is the hardness which it acquires by long exposure to the weather, that when Major De Haviland, some years ago, requested a specimen of the masonry of the fort to be procured and sent up to him, the iron crows and other instruments used in detaching the blocks, were blunted and bent in all directions by the solidity of the chunam, which is far more adhesive than that obtained from shells. A stone capable of being converted into so valuable a cement would almost pay the expense of its excavation.

Soil.—The north division of the island is sandy and calcareous, resting upon madrepore, as it is little elevated above the level of the sea; the surface of the elevated lands of Saffragam, and Lower Ouva, is much stronger and well adapted for tillage; the granitic soil of the interior produces the most luxuriant crops wherever there are a sufficiency of hands to call forth the gifts of industry. The soil of the southern plains is sandy, resting on a strong red marl termed 'cabook,' the base of which is granite, and in the neighbourhood of Colombo the lands are

low, and subject to inundations from the Mutwal River.

The foundations of the island are apparently calcareous, yet the greater proportion of its soil is siliceous, in many places (as in the cinnamon gardens near Colombo), the surface being as white as snow, and formed of pure quartz sand. The soils of Ceylon are stated to be in general derived from the decomposition of gneiss, granite, or clay, ironstone, the principal ingredient being quartz in the form of sand or gravel, decomposed felspar in the state of clay, combined with different proportions of the oxide of iron, quartz in most instances being the predominating substance, and in many places forming nine-tenths of the whole, the natural soils seldom containing more than three per cent. vegetable matter. The most productive earths are a brown loam resulting from the decomposition of gneiss, or granite, exceeding in felspar, or a reddish loam originating from the decomposition of clay ironstone: the worst soils are those where quartz predominate, proceeding from the disintegration of quartz rock, or of granite and gneis, containing a very large proportion of quartz.

Climate.—Ceylon is under the complete influence of the monsoons, the north-east prevailing from November to February, and the south-west from April to September; the intervening or equinoctial months having variable winds or calms. The eastern side of the island is hot and dry, like the Coromandel coast, occasioned by the north-east monsoon; the opposite

division of the isle is temperate and humid like the southern Malabar shore under the influence of the south-west monsoon; the climate, however, of the southern coast is more congenial to Europeans than perhaps any part of the continent of India. On the whole the north and north-east may be said to be dry, and the south-west moist. The south-west wind is more general all over the island, as both at Columbo and Trincomalee it blows for five months in succession, whereas the north-east blows at Columbo only in the months of December and January, seldom beyond them. Among the mountains of the interior, the winds are modified by local circumstances, according to their proximity to the east or west coast: and the highest and most central land have peculiarities of their own. Thus, at Badulla, in Upper Ouva (where there is an excellent hospital and military station), the wind for three-fourths of the year is from the north-east, and in June, July, and August variable.

Owing to its intertropical position the quantity of rain that falls in Ceylon is very great, probably three times that of England. Being less frequent, the showers are much heavier while they last, a fall of two or three inches being not uncommon in twenty-four hours; the average of the alpine region is about eighty-four inches; on an average, however, less rain falls on the east than on the west side of the island; a lofty mountainons ridge often acting as a line of demarcation, one side of which is drenched with rain, while the other is broiling under an unclouded sun. Colonel Colebrook, in his valuable report on this lovely island, justly remarks that, the climate and

seasons of the north and south districts are strikingly contrasted. On one side of the island, and even on one side of a mountain, the rain may fall in torrents, while on the other, the earth is parched and the herbage withered; the inhabitants may be securing themselves from inundations, while in another they are carefully husbanding the little water of a former season which may be retained in their wells and tanks. Thus, throughout the southern division, where the rains are copious (owing, probably, to its exposure to the Southern Ocean) canals are not less useful in draining the lowlands, than in the conveyance of produce; and embankments are much required to secure the crops from destruction during the rainy season; while in the north division of the island, tanks and watercourses are in the greatest request, to secure the inhabitants against the frequent droughts to which those districts are liable.

Owing, also, to its insular position, no climate is more favoured than Ceylon, its temperature being moderate when compared with the scorching plains of India. Along the sea-coast the mean annual temperature may be taken at 80° Farenheit; the extreme range line from 68° to 90°, and the medium from 75° to 85°. The climate of the mountains is of course cooler, but its vicissitudes greater. At Kandy, which is 1467 feet above the sea, the mean annual temperature is 78°; at the top of Mamini Cooli Kandi, 5900 feet high, Dr. Davy found the temperature at eight A.M. 57°. At Columbo (the capital) the mean daily variation of the temperature does not exceed 3°, while the annual range of the thermometer is from

76° to 86½° Farenheit. At Galle the mean daily variation is 4°, and the annual range 71° to 87°. Jaffnapatam, mean daily variation 5°, annual range 70° to 90°. Trincomalee, *greatest* daily variation 17°, annual range 74° to 91°. At Kandy (the capital of the mountain, or table land in the interior), mean daily variation 6°, annual range 66° to 86°. At Newera Ellia, a military convalescent station, mean daily variations as high as 11°, and annual variation from 35° to 80°.

CEYLON METEOROLOGY.

COLOMBO (SEA SHORE) REGISTER.

	Thermometer.					Barometer.		Wind.	Rain* Guage, inches
	Mean, Morning.	Mean, Mid-day.	Mean, Night.	Highest.	Lowest.	Maximum.	Minimum.		
Jan....	78	81	79	82½	76	29.85	29.80	N.	1.0
Feb....	79	83	81½	85	76	30.	29.85	N. to N. E. and S. W.	0.4
March	80	84	82	85	77	29.90	29.80		8.1
April..	81	84	82	86½	80	29.87	29.85		11.7
May...	82	85	82	86	79	29.93	29.80	S. W.	6.6
June..	81	83	82	86	79	29.88	29.	Ditto.	2.3
July...	80	83	81	84	79	29.98	29.	Ditto.	10.7
Aug...	81	83	82	83	80	29.90	...	Ditto.	3.5
Sept...	82	83	82	85	81	29.90	29.80	Ditto.	8.2
Oct....	80	83	81	83	78	29.90	29.80	Ditto.	7.1
Nov...	80	82	81	83	79	30.	29.90	S. W. to N. and N. E.	7.1
Dec....	80	82	80	84	78	29.90	29.80		18.6

* The rain guage, shewing a total of 84.3 inches, is for Kandy (in 1819), in the interior, which shows the average of the mountain districts; on the sea-shore, as at Colombo, the average annual fall of rain is from 75 to 80 inches.

 (*Continued.*)

CEYLON METEOROLOGY. *(Continued.)*

BADULLA (2107 feet above the sea.)*

	Thermometer.					
	8 A. M.	Noon.	8 P. M.	Highest.	Lowest.	
Jan....	62	72	66	74	55	Heavy rains, and very cold nights.
Feb....	63	74	68	77	55	No rain ; hot.
March	62	76	67	80	50	A little rain, and warm.
April..	66	78	70	80	65	No rain ; very warm.
May...	68	78	71	83	64	Light rain ; windy.
June..	64	77	72	80	65	No rain ; hot and dry.
July...	63	74	71	81	60	Ditto ; very hot.
Aug...	66	79	71	83	60	Ditto ; hot.
Sept...	66	79	72	82	62	Ditto ; ditto.
Oct....	66	79	72	83	62	Heavy rains, and cool.
Nov...	67	75	71	83	62	Ditto, ditto.
Dec....	67½	73	71	75	62	Hot and dry ; very cold nights.

* Badulla is situate on a plain, surrounded by hills from 1 to 3000 feet, in a mountainous country, in the south extremity of Ceylon, having the sea at 40 to 50 miles distant on the East, South, and West sides ; the elevation above the ocean level of 2107 feet.

The climate of Ceylon, where the soil is not cleared, is undoubtedly subject to pernicious miasmata, arising from stagnant marshes, and dank and noisome jungles, and even when the jungles are cleared, it requires the sun to act on them for some time before the unhealthy miasmata are dissipated ; at certain seasons, therefore, endemic fevers appear in situations favourable to their propagation, but the whole island is becoming more uniformly salubrious as it becomes cleared, and cultivated. The environs of Trincomalee, which were formerly very unhealthy, have be-

come much less so by clearing the jungles in the environs, and if the salt-water lake (' Snake Island' I think it is termed) to the northward of Columbo were cleared, the maritime capital of Ceylon, though within 8° of the equator, would be one of the healthiest and pleasantest residences in India.

It is true that our troops have suffered much in Ceylon, but it should be recollected, that as compared with the Indian army, their wear and tare of duty is much more severe than the latter, and they have not the facilities of water communication which the Ganges and its tributaries afford; the one country is in many parts quite unpeopled, and the other comparatively civilized; add to which a pernicious system prevails in Ceylon, of making the troops commence marches at midnight, than which nothing can be more injurious. A late intelligent Deputy Inspector General of the hospitals in Ceylon (H. Marshall, Esq.) has drawn up the following comparative table of the health and mortality of troops in India, Ceylon, and Mauritius, but it must be remembered, in the first place, that the data for Ceylon were made some time ago, since which period the country is materially improved, and in order to judge more correctly, we should know the ages of the deceased and invalided, and the tropical servitude endured. I give, however, the table, in the hope that it may induce further inquiry based on more extensive facts; there are no class of persons better qualified for topographical details than the medical officers of the British army, who have contributed so much to extend the literature and science of England throughout her colonies

Health of Troops in India, Ceylon, and Mauritius.

Stations.	Period.		Total No. Years.	Strength.	Ann. mean No. of Deaths.	Mean ratio of Deaths.	Ann. mean No. of men invalided.	Mean ratio of Men invalided.	Total loss by Death and Invaliding.
	From	To							
INDIA:									
Bengal Army	1825	1826	1	7976	774	9·7	379	4·7	14·5
Madras Army	1808	1809	2	8717	713	8·1			
Ditto ditto	1815	1821	7	12592	794	6·3	486	3·7	10·1
17th Dragoons	1809	1822	14	730	75	7·8			
Royal Regiment, 2d battalion	1807	1831	24	1067	92	7·6	37	3·1	10·8
13th Regiment *	1823	1829	7	764	133	19·6			
34th ditto	1803	1823	20	895	69	7·7			
45th ditto	1819	1830	12	738	63	8·5	22	3·	11·5
59th ditto	1806	1818	13	901	69	7·8	21	2·3	10·
65th ditto	1801	1822	22	971	64	6·5	18	1·8	8·4
69th ditto	1805	1820	15	844	68	8·5			
78th ditto	1797	1815	19	846	96	11·3			
CEYLON:									
19th Regiment	1796	1819	24	837	62	7·4	24	2·8	10·2
73d ditto†	1818	1820	3	654	184	28·1	35	5·3	33·4
83d ditto	1818	1820	3	871	78	8·9	55	6·3	15·2
MAURITIUS:									
82d Regiment	1820	1831	12	534	20	3·7	24	4·5	8·2

* This gallant regiment suffered much during the Burmese war, and the disproportionate mortality was owing to the unhealthiness of Rangoon, &c.

† The mortality of this regiment was owing to its great fatigue and exposure during the Kandyan war, and subsequent rebellion in the mountain and jungly districts.

Since the first edition of this work appeared I have received the following data, demonstrative of the improvement that has taken place in the healthiness of the climate of Ceylon.

It will be perceived that the average mortality of the troops, the best criterion that can be referred to, has considerably diminished, and that the chance of

longevity to an European are now very nearly as great as if he resided in a temperate climate.

Extract from the Columbo Journal of August, 1832.

We publish the returns of the four following regiments, now stationed in this island, the 58th, 61st, 78th, and 97th :—

Strength of the 78th regiment on arriving in Ceylon,
August, 1826.. .... 553 men.
Increase from various sources 116

669
Deduct transfer and discharges 44

Died by natural deaths 141 — 625
Casualties and suicides 13

154, or 24 16-25 per cent. in 6 years.

Strength of the 97th regiment on arriving in Ceylon,
August, 1825 .... 538 men.
Increase from various sources 158

696
Deduct transfer and discharges 40

Died by natural deaths 172 — 656
Casualties and suicides 6

178, or 27 11-82 per cent. in 7 years.

Strength of the 61st regiment on arriving in Ceylon,
November, 1828............................ 544 men.
Increase from various sources 26

570
Deduct transfer and discharges 8

Died natural deaths 92 — 562
Casualties 2

94, or 16 204-281 per cent. in 4 years.

Strength of the 58th regiment on arriving in Ceylon, November, 1828	521	men.
Increased	60	
	581	
Deduct transfers, &c.	8	
	573	

Died by natural deaths 59
Casualties 4
63, or 11 per cent. in 4 years.

Strength of the artillery on landing in Ceylon, August, 1828 73
Died 15, or 20 40-73 per cent. in 4 years.

Summary.

The 78th have diminished by	24 16-25 in 6 years.
The 97th	27 11-82 in 7 years.
The 61st	16 204-281 in 4 years.
The 58th	11 in 4 years.
Royal artillery	20 40-73 in 4 years.
	100 in 25 years, or 4 per cent. per annum.

Statement showing the strength of the service and reserve companies of the 58th regiment, and the numbers of sick in each respectively, on the first day of every month from January to August, 1832. The reserve companies were stationed at Fermoy, in Ireland.

With the exception of the month of January, or rather of December, 1831, the proportion of sick was in each month far less at Kandy than at the depôt in Ireland; and in the seven months taken collectively the rate at Kandy was below four, whilst at Fermoy it was above six in the hundred.

Return showing the Strength and Number of Sick with the Service and Reserve Companies of the 58th Regiment up to August, 1832.

Months.	Service Companies stationed in Ceylon.		Reserve Companies stationed in Ireland.	
	Number of sick on the 1st of each month.	Strength on the 1st of each month.	Number of sick on the 1st of each month.	Strength on the 1st of each month.
1832.				
1st of January	26	523	10	261
1st of February	26	521	16	268
1st of March	23	519	16	·268
1st of April...............	19	516	14	267
1st of May	29	514	18	269
1st of June...............	17	512	15	269
1st of July	16	510	18	264
1st of August............	12	506	23	272
	168	4121	130	2138

Strength of European Troops in Ceylon in the Years 1833 and 1834, and Annual Mortality.

Years.	Strength.	Deaths.
1833	1985	57, under 3 per cent.
1834	2660	70, about $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.

S. Forbes, M.D.

Deputy Inspector of His Majesty's Hospitals in Ceylon.

When Ceylon is cleared and cultivated all over, as our West Indian Islands are, it will be as healthy as England. I have known Europeans and the descendents of Europeans, in Columbo, nearly 100 years of age, without scarcely ever suffering pain or sickness. Fogs and mists are rare, except in some of the deep densely foliaged valleys of the interior, and all round the sea-coast there is an unvarying

alternation of sea and land breezes, twice in the 24 hours, which are felt nearly across the island in every direction.

A delightful station has been formed at Newera Ellia, south west from Kandy 50 miles, 14 from Fort M'Donald, 15 from Maturatte, and 122 from Columbo. The road between Newera Ellia and Kandy leads through a wild and mountainous country, the scenery always picturesque, sometimes magnificent in the extreme; at one time, the traveller is surrounded by steep and inaccessible mountains, whose sides are clothed with dense forests: rocks of an enormous size, deep and precipitate ravines, and cataracts rushing with foaming velocity from the heights, diversify the scene. The height of Newera Ellia plain (four miles long, and one and a half broad) is nearly 6,000 feet above the sea, and it is surrounded by steep mountains of irregular height (covered with wood to the very summit), one in particular—rising almost 2,000 feet above the level of Newera Ellia River, which meanders through lovely banks across the plain. The climate is delicious, never approaching tropical heat in summer, and yielding ice in winter; the mean temperature, by day and night, for the entire year 55° F. The water is so pure as to form a transparent solution with nitrate of silver; several chalybeate springs have been met with. The daisy, buttercup, violet, ribwort, dandelion, barbery, briar, &c. flourish indigenously; the rose, pink, mignionette, and carnation, are as fragrant as in England; delicious strawberries are abundant; and potatoes, carrots,

artichokes, peas, beans, salads, cabbages, turnips, parsnips, and in fact every British culinary vegetable, thrive luxuriantly. The soil (in which limestone has been found) is of a deep black mould, resting on a stratum of yellow clay and gravel, numerous varieties of beautiful quartz exist, and the frequenters of a climate within a few degrees of the equator, will learn, with astonishment, that a fire is always enjoyed by night, and frequently in the day.

Vegetable Productions.—No island on the face of the earth is richer in vegetable productions, than is this famed isle of palm and spices ; I need scarcely allude to cinnamon, of which it may be said to have a monopoly, as China has of tea. This delightful spice grows wild as well as cultivated, in every southern part of the island, whether in the white quartz soil of the gardens on the sea-shore at Columbo, or in the red Cabook hills of Kandy, where-ever, in fact, there is sufficient moisture.

A description of the plant and the mode in which the bark is prepared, may not prove uninteresting :—

The *laurus cinnamonum,* although cultivated in many tropical places, has its principal habitation at Ceylon, which is capable of yielding a sufficient supply for every country in Europe ; the tree whence the cinnamon bark is derived grows to the height of from 15 to 20 feet, with an irregular and knotty stem, branchy and ligneous roots, fibrous and inodorous wood, external bark rough, thick, scabrous, and of an ash colour, inner bark reddish, (the young shoots are often delicately speckled with dark green and light orange colours) ; branches umbrageous inclining horizontally and downwards ; leaves oblong and in pairs, from six to nine inches in length and three broad, petiolated, colour dark green ; flowers clustered on one peduncle, white, wanting calyx, smell resembling

a mixture of rose and lilac; fruit an oval berry, larger than a black currant, receptacle thick, green and hexangular. The roots have the pungent smell of camphor, and the delicious odour of cinnamon, yielding camphor by distillation; the leaves have the pungent taste of cloves; the berries, by boiling, yield an unctuous substance like wax, emitting an agreeable odour, and formerly used as candles for the exclusive use of the Kandian Court. Cattle of every kind eagerly feed on the luxuriant foliage, while pigeons, crows, and other birds, devour the berries with avidity. To the industry of man belongs the bark, the varieties of which are dependent on the nature of the soil, on the skill in cultivating and peeling, and on the age and healthiness of the plant. About 2,000 acres of land are laid out in regular cinnamon plantations in Ceylon, and about 30,000 persons employed thereon. The peeling of the bark begins with May and ends with October; the peelers (chalias, a distinct caste in Ceylon) commence the process by striking a sharp bill-hook into a shoot which seems fit for peeling; if on opening the gash the bark separates gently, it is fit for decortication; if otherwise, the shoot is unhealthy, the gash is carefully closed, and the sucker left for future examination; shoots thus found fit (generally from three to five feet long, and three-quarters of an inch in diameter) are then cut down, conveyed to sheds, and there cleared of leaves and twigs; by means of two longitudinal slits the bark peels off in two semi-circular slips; when a sufficient number are collected, the sections are placed in close contact (as two quill-halves would be laid one within the other) and the whole bundle is firmly pressed and bound up together for twenty-four hours, until a degree of fermentation is produced, which facilitates the removal of the cuticle; subsequently the interior side of each section of bark is placed upon a convex piece of wood fitted to its size, and the epidermis, together with the green succulent matter carefully scraped off (if any of the outer pulpy substance be allowed to remain, the cinnamon has an unpleasant bitterness;) a few hours after the removal of the cuticle, the pieces are again placed in each other, and the bark in drying gradually contracts and rolls itself into a quill-like form.

During the first day it is placed under shelter on open platforms, subsequently it is finally dried in the sun, and made up into bundles of about thirty pounds weight. A plantation requires seven or eight years' growth before yielding produce; the tree is least advantageously propagated by seeds,—layers and shoots, or transplanted stumps, are the best means of extending the growth. The following are the quantities of cinnamon recently imported, exported, and consumed in England :—

	Imported.	Exported.	Consumed.
1827, lbs.	267444	359692	14451
1828,	337483	354536	15696
1829,	544225	386108	29720
1830,	464175	535223	Nil.
1831,	225869	504643	23172
1832,	36762	524277	15271
1833,	102402	447855	11073
1834,	221222	222493	11686

The duty on importation is 6*d.* per lb.

From Columbo to Tangalle, a distance of 100 miles along the sea shore, plantations of cinnamon, amidst groves of cocoa nut trees, skirt the whole coast for ten miles from the bordering of the tide, which laves the very roots of those graceful and indispensable palms, the cocoa nut, being in reality the most valuable product of the island. In 1813 it was calculated that there grew along the coast between Dondrahead and Calpentyn (184 miles), ten million cocoa nut trees. I recollect hearing in Ceylon an enumeration of 99 distinct articles made from this tree, among the principal were :—1. *Arrack* (the spirit under this name, made from the cocoa nut blossom, is far superior to the Batavian arrack, made from rice), which is distilled from the sweet juice of the incised flower-stock, termed—2. '*Toddy*,' in

itself a delicious wholesome beverage, when drank fresh drawn before the morning sun has caused fermentation to commence. 3. *Jaghery,* a coarse, strong grained, but peculiar flavoured sugar (well adaped for crystallization, or refining in England), made in abundance from toddy. 4. *Vinegar,* equal to any made from white wine, also prepared from the toddy, and used in making exquisite 5. *pickles,* from the young shoots. 6. *Coir,* or ropes, strong and elastic, and having the peculiar property of being best preserved for use in sea-water (hence their adaptation for mooring, and other purposes, to which they are now applied in Mauritius harbour and elsewhere, as also for running rigging in the India shipping). 7. Brushes and brooms, of various descriptions. 8. Matting of excellent quality. 9. Rafters for houses. 10. Oil of much value, and now used in England for candles as well as lamps. 11. Gutters or water-spouts, or conveyances, for which the hollow stem or trunk is so well adapted. 12. Thatching for the peasants' cottages, the shady broad leaf being admirably suited for the purpose. 13. Alkaline ashes from the burnt leaves, and used by washermen. 14. The roots are sometimes masticated in place of areca nut. 15. Baskets of the young shoots. 16. Drums of the crust of the trunk. 17. Reticulated cloth cradles or couches for infants. 18. The terminal buds, used instead of cabbage. 19. Translucent lanterns of the young leaves. 20. Tablets for writing upon with an iron stylus or pen (after the Roman manner), from the leaflets. 21. An Æolian harp of the stripes of the leaf. 22.

Stuffing (*coir*), in place of hair, for couch cushions, mattresses, saddles, &c. To particularise further, would, however, be tedious, suffice it to say, that the natives of the Maldive islands send an annual embassy to Ceylon, the boats conveying whom are entirely prepared from this tree, the persons composing the embassy, clothed and fed on its products, and the numerous presents for the Governor of Ceylon, are all manufactured from this queen of the palms.

From Tangalle to Chilaw, a distance of 135 miles, it is nearly one continued grove of cocoa-nut, bread-fruit, and jack-fruit trees, the latter being scarcely inferior in importance to the natives as an article of food, &c. than the cocoa-nut. Cotton grows with the greatest facility, whether Nankin, Bourbon, or Brazil; the buds are ripe within four months after the seed is put in the ground, and the interior, particularly about Taldeina, contains immense supplies of the gigantic cotton tree, whose silky pods, when bursting, cover the earth around with their beautiful glossy filaments, which our manufacturers in Manchester would be so glad to obtain.

Every village or hut has its patch of sugar-cane and tobacco; the latter, in many parts of the island, has a delicious aroma. Coffee grows luxuriantly, and even without care, of an excellent quality; when properly attended to it is considered by many superior to Mocha[1]. The pepper-vine grows nearly in a

[1] The importation of Ceylon coffee into the united kingdom in 1832, was 2,824,998 lbs. notwithstanding a tax of 9*d.* per lb. being levied on it in England. Next year, however, the duty will be 6*d.*

state of wildness all over the island. Cardamom plants are equally plentiful. The much sought after areca-nut is of the finest species, and unsurpassed, nay, even unequalled in any part of the east. The rice of Ceylon has a richness of flavour I have never found in any other country. Teak forests abound, and excellent masts and yards of the largest size are every where procurable. Calamander, ebony, satin, rose, sappan, iron, jack, &c., and every species of the most beautiful cabinet-making woods, are in rich profusion (see the Ceylon cabinet desks, dressing-cases, &c., so much and so justly admired in England). Enchanting groves of the Palmyra palms surround the villages in the northward of the island, and like the cocoa palms in the south, are of the greatest value to the peasantry in seasons of drought. The following shows the nature of the crop, and the number of acres under each crop in the island. From what I know of the interior I imagine it can only be an approximation to correctness.

Nature of Crop, and Number of Acres in each Crop.

Years.	Paddy.	Fine Grains.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Mustard.	Gram.	Indian Corn.	Peas.	Cotton.	Tobacco.	Pasture.	Total No. of Acres in crop.	No. of Acres of Uncultivated Land.
1828	189476	44424	2701	105	4	289	13		205	5667	83248	243309	1768661
1829	165350	49772	3280	95	3	441	133	296	396	7405	84422	311301	1694048
1830	195497	122748	9202	985	6	386	800	1119	916	7914	77705	416982	1825264
1831	158649	120008	10952	1250	9	320	911	1040	764	10421	75887	381059	1645594
1832	161238	88131	12172	1349	6	1448	913	1197	1184	10771	115315	394829	2130322
1833	212126	102069	13616	3057	20	3025	512	1232	1230	6704	111430	456206	1674136

Nature and Quantity of Produce Raised.

Years.	Paddy.	Fine Grains.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Mustard.	Gram.	Maize.	Peas.	Cotton.	Tobacco.
	bushels.	bushels.	bushels.	bushels.	bushels.	bushels.	bushels.	bushels.	lbs.	lbs.
1828	6042678	576319	4669	200	15	5109	17726	...	35715	...
1829	5163991	494721	3225	192	22	5208	17020	...	24746	...
1830	5831187	670122	28938	1531	297	5984	104816	2574	60798	...
1831	5299695	657710	32756	2658	548	5325	102037	2834	73615	2052516
1832	4590602	769116	61110	5437	1068	16292	96100	2647	234592	1144140
1833	3976540	804937	88378	6273	923	26947	34477	24278	1336547	3624684

Average Prices of each Description of Produce.

Years.	Paddy.	Fine Grains.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Mustard.	Gram.	Maize.	Peas.	Cotton.	Tobacco.
	per bushel.	per bushel	per bushel.	per bushel.	per bushel.	per bushel.	per bushel.	per bushel.	per lb.	per lb.
1828	9*d.*	1*s.* 6*d.*	3*s.* 2*d.*	8*s.* 4*d.*	1*s.*	2*s.*	1*s.* 3*d.*	...	4*d.*	1*d.*
1829	1*s.* 4*d.*	1*s.*	3*s.* 6*d.*	5*s.*	1*s.*	3*s.*	1*s.*	...	5½*d.*	3*d.* to 6*d.*
1830	1*s.* 4*d.*	1*s.*	4*s.*	6*s.*	1*s.*	3*s.* 9*d.*	1*s.*	1*s.* 10*d.*	6*d.*	
1831	10*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.*	6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.*	3*s.* to 7*s.* 4*d.*	4*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.*	9*d.*	1*s.* 9*d.* to 2*s.* 3*d.*	3*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*	1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.*	1*d.* to 4½*d.*	3*d.* to 6*d.*
1832	8½*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.*	4½*d.* to 3*s.* 7*d.*	5*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.* 4*d.*	4*d.* to 25*s.* 6*d.*	2*s.* to 8*s.* 4*d.*	9*d.* to 4½*d.*	6*d.* to 1*s.* 11*d.*	2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.*	1½*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*	1½*d.* to 2*s.* 1*d.*
1833	6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.*	3¾*d.* to 6*s.* 2*d.*	6*s.* to 22*s.* 6*d.*	4*s.* 2*d.* to 22*s.* 6*d.*	4*d.* to 5*s.* 10*d.*	4*s.* to 7*s.*	4*d.* to 3*s.* 8*d.*	1*s.* to 4*s.* 4*d.*	6*d.* to 3*s.* 4*d.*	2*s.* 4*d.* to 3*s.* 4*d.*

Live Stock.

Years.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
1828	1127	559904	34415	46872
1829	1027	550333	29797	31019
1830	1132	551419	31110	38015
1831	1146	537203	29510	38336
1832	864	552740	40877	47968
1833	1128	591769	40172	46756

Animals.—If the vegetable kingdom be rich in Ceylon, the animated one is no less so, from the gigantic elephant to the many-coloured chamelion; indeed earth, air, and water is instinct with life. The elephants of Ceylon have long been famed for their size and docility; as regards the former, some writers have of late stated that the African elephant is the larger of the two. I have, when traversing parts of Ceylon and districts of Africa, had ample opportunities of comparing both beasts in their wild state. Often have I been obliged to sleep in a gigantic cotton or umbrageous jack tree, while a herd of those magnificent animals were grazing beneath me, or browsing off the nethermost branches of my nightly shelter; and at other times I have chosen a safe position for firing (in youthful thoughtlessness) at these sagacious and generous brutes, who have subsequently spared my life when I was at their mercy; I may, therefore, consider myself qualified to judge between the two animals.

The Asiatic elephant is considerably taller than any I ever saw in Africa; his head is not so large, nor his limbs so unwieldy as that of the latter, and according to the accounts of those who catch and domesticate them, the former is a much more valuable animal than the latter to man. Though still extremely numerous in Ceylon (I have seen wild herds of 100 and 200 young and old elephants), this extraordinary creature will doubtlessly disappear before cultivation and civilization, particularly as his noble nature disdains to produce a breed of slaves. They have been for some time used in government works, in drawing

timber and stones for bridges, and in conveying the baggage of a regiment when on the march, a duty which their surefootedness over the mountains renders them peculiarly adapted for.

The tiger of Ceylon is a formidable and destructive animal, and so bold that it has been known to come into a bazaar and snatch off some unfortunate cooley, or seize on an European soldier's child while the mother has been spreading out her washed clothes on the hedge opposite her dwelling. The buffalo in its wild state is also a very troublesome opponent, particularly if his antagonist have a red coat or jacket on. The elk of Ceylon assimilates in appearance with the fossil remains of those found in Ireland. Deer of every variety are plentiful, and their flesh, when preserved in honey for two or three years by the wild Veddas, forms a feast which a London alderman once tasting would never forget.

Snakes are numerous; but of twenty different kinds, examined by Dr. Davy, sixteen were found harmless. The *tic polonga* of the *coluber* species is the most deadly in its poison; I have seen a strong dog die in fifteen minutes after being bit, and a fowl in less than three minutes: the *cobra capello carawalla*, and three or four others, are nearly equally fatal. The natives say that the *tic polonga* lies in wait on the road side to dart out on travellers; my observations lead me to believe such is the case. A large snake called the *pimberah* exists, the length of which is thirty feet. While travelling through Ovah and the central provinces, I have been assured by the Mohanderems of the districts, particularly towards Ruan Welle, of the

existence of boas of a much greater size than thirty feet, and their ovi and viviparous habits distinguished. The alligator is found in most rivers, and the jackal in every tope; the mountain provinces are infested with a species of small leech, that cling with peculiar tenacity to any bare flesh, and draw much blood, their bites in diseased constitutions being productive of considerable after suffering.

Wild peacocks are abundant in the interior. The jungle cock of Ceylon is a splendid bird, equal, if not superior, in plumage to the golden pheasant. The quail, snipe, and woodcock of the upper districts would please any epicure, and a fish gourmond, whether on the coast or inland, might never feel satiety, if variety and exquisiteness of flavour could ensure appetite. The beef is small, but sweet, and the mutton of Jaffnapatam equal to South Down. Eating is a favourite pursuit with some old Europeans in Ceylon, and certes it is a good place to indulge that faculty in.

Mineral Kingdom.—The metallic riches of Ceylon are yet almost unknown; the island, as before observed, is principally composed of granite, with veins of quartz, hornblende, and dolomite; rock and shell limestone are found near Kandy and Jaffnapatam; iron and plumbago (the latter now forms an article of considerable export) are abundant; and gold (some say also quicksilver) and silver are found in the hill streams. Amethyst, topazes, cats' eyes, garnet, cinnamon stone, sapphires, rock crystals, shorl, zircon, rubies, and diamonds, &c. the island has long been famed for: the celebrated pearl fishery in the Gulf of

Manaar my limits forbid me here dwelling on. The natural history of the pearl-oyster is imperfectly known; the banks have been found suddenly to fail when a productive fishery had been anticipated. At certain seasons the young oysters are seen floating in masses, and are carried by the current round the coast; they afterwards settle and attach themselves by a fibre or beard to the coral rocks, and on sand they adhere together in clusters. When full grown they are again separated and become locomotive. The pearls enlarge during six years, and the oyster is supposed to die after seven years: they are fished at a depth of thirty-six feet in the calm season. The length of time which the divers remain under water is almost incredible to an European. Nitre caves are numerous; alum is plentiful, and the coast from Chilaw to Manaar and Jaffna, on the western side, and from Tangalle, through the Mahagampatoo, to the eastward, contains the most extensive and valuable salt formations which are to be met with in India. The leways, or natural deposits at Hambantotte, yield the largest supply of the finest salt, owing to the peculiar dryness of the air, and the rapid evaporation at certain seasons; the salt which thus crystallizes spontaneously is of great purity, and more slowly dissolved when exposed to the moisture of the atmosphere than that which is artificially prepared. There are many inducements for capitalists to emigrate to Ceylon; its extensive fisheries of pearl and chank (*voluta gravis*), the manufacture of coir ropes, cocoa-nut oil, and indigo, the distillation of arrack, the preparation of plumbago, the collection of Chaya roots (*oldenlandia*

umbellata of Linnæus, used for dyeing red, orange, and purple), Sapan wood and ivory, for the Indian and English markets, and the cultivation of cinnamon, pepper, cardamoms, tobacco, grain, ginger, cotton, silk, &c. &c.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION WHITE AND COLOURED—CASTES—RELIGION—CIVILIZATION, &c.

That Ceylon was formerly extensively peopled is evident from the works and structures before alluded to, but it would appear the number of the inhabitants had been declining for the last four or five centuries. An increase has now commenced in the maritime provinces, which had, in 1814, mouths, 475,883; in 1824, 595,105; and, in 1832, 698,611. Colonel Colebrooke states in his report, that the population, in 1824, was, in the southern or Cingalese provinces, 399,408; in the northern or Malabar districts, 195,697; and in the interior or Kandyan provinces, 256,835; total, 852,940. The returns from the maritime provinces are doubtless correct, as the village registers of marriages, and births, and deaths are kept as punctually there as in England[1]; but having

[1] The coroner's inquests held in the maritime provinces for the year 1833 showed 148 deaths, of whom 38 fell from trees, 87 were drowned, 19 fell into wells, 6 from bites of serpents, 1 alligator, 2 elephants, 8 murder, 10 natural, and among the remainder are included 8 murders.

myself traversed the Kandyan provinces more extensively perhaps than any European, I should think the estimate of their population is under rather than over the mark: it is to be feared, however, that the decreasing of the semi-barbarous inhabitants of this splendid region has scarcely reached its acme, perhaps it may now be considered stationary, as the comforts of the people are on the increase.

A colonial office manuscript affords me a few consecutive years of the aggregate population of the island: I derive 1831 and 1832 from the Ceylon Almanac. It appears singular that the number of slaves should be on the increase, although every child born of bond parents since 1812 has been born free, according to the generous determination of the slave owners.

Census of the Maritime Districts of Ceylon, in 1814.

Above the age of Puberty.		Children.		Total Males.	Total Females.	Grand Total.
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			
156447	142453	95091	81892	251538	224345	475883

Population of Ceylon. (Colonial Office manuscript.)

Years.	White and Free Coloured People.		Slaves.		Total.		Persons employed in			Maritime Provinces.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Agriculture.	Manufacture.	Commerce.	Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
1823*	374982	347805	10509	11850	385491	359655	...	...	...	...	...	...
1824*	376865	347057	11798	13198	388663	360255	...	...	...	...	...	...
1827	464747	401104	10151	9536	474898	410676	...	...	...	...	...	...
1828	479045	426252	9732	9790	488777	436042	295124	33082	29525	18739	5183	10283
1829	486416	426387	10596	9868	497102	436255	301576	38302	31219	18062	5163	12018
1830	492938	434717	12394	10652	507832	445369	302254	38033	31273	...	...	...
1831	90474	439362	10501	10155	500975	449517	306821	39593	36127	20993	4745	17928
1832	12679	462621	11373	11616	524052	474237	304095	26390	47710	18705	8114	17025

* I should think these years embrace only the maritime provinces. Dr. Davy estimated the population of the Kandyan districts, in 1819, at 300,000—a number, I should think, from my own knowledge of the country, rather too high; but it is perhaps difficult to say whether the population be increasing or decreasing in the interior.

The following, in some respects complete, view of thinly the island is peopled, there not being in some mile! The average for the maritime districts is 66, whole island but forty.

Census taken in the year 1832 of the population of

County or District.	Area in square miles.	Whites.		Free Blacks.		Slaves.	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Maritime Provinces:							
Colombo	1472	1746	1835	121286	112068	114	132
Galle	592	400	470	44355	43459	8	5
Tangalle	2360	42	26	55282	50993	...	...
Batticaloa	1360	197	190	15109	13924	2	2
Trincomalee	1680	285	65	7070	5391	16	18
Jaffnapatam	1220	302	322	74086	71554	10144	10359
Manar	1088	117	130	10940	10516	27	26
Chilaw	720	109	112	15018	12735	11	21
Delft	28	...	...	1651	1592	...	...
Total	10520	3198	3150	344797	322262	10322	10583
Kandyan Provinces:							
Uderatte	1128	...	...	34541	27560	380	425
Four Korles	304	...	...	18231	13498	82	81
Three Korles	360	7	...	4727	3530	17	6
Seven Korles	3728	8	4	57698	48671	238	206
Uwa	4144	...	...	16931	16672	210	222
Matele	2272	...	...	7525	6708	76	70
Saffragam	1584	...	...	24327	19759	54	43
Tamankadewe	624	...	...	689	717	...	...
Total	14144	15	4	164669	137205	1051	1053
Grand total	24664	3213	3154	509466	459467	11373	11616

Population of

the population is highly interesting; it shows how districts more than four, five, or six mouths to a square for the Kandyan provinces thirty-one, and for the

Ceylon, and of the Births, Marriages, and Deaths.

Total.		Aliens and resident Strangers.	Population to the square mile.	Persons employed in			Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
Males.	Females.			Agriculture.	Manufacture.	Commerce.			
123746	114035	1871	162	61358	6854	10179	7292	2030	5240
47763	43934	161	150	17510	5221	6415	2600	233	1504
55324	51019	207	45	26247	3414	3267	4435	555	4406
15308	14116	...	21	9009	370	4921	1293	117	351
7371	5474	550	8	1598	954	447	458	133	726
84532	82235	215	136	63493	5393	19829	1036	4132	3876
11084	10702	350	20	4396	450	623	436	698	336
15138	12868	1016	40	6621	941	752	991	210	503
1651	1592	39	117	969	34	7	164	6	83
358317	335975	4319	699	191201	23631	46440	18705	8114	17025
34921	27985	3179	58	21472	2073	586	The returns under these heads must be wholly conjectural, no registers having ever been kept referrible to the native population.		
18313	13579	600	106	11615	325	160			
4751	3536	131	23	3601	...	47			
57944	48881	400	28	57701	...	243			
17141	16894	1281	8	15280	...	234			
7595	6868	809	6	2515	361	...			
24381	19802	...	28	25000	...	...			
689	717	...	2	680	...	...			
165735	138262	6400	21	112894	2759	1270			
524052	474237	10719	40	304095	26390	47710			

Ceylon, 1,009,008.

The following table demonstrates that in the Colombo district, at least, population is on the increase; and it will be observed that the augmentation (except in the fort and pettah) has been steady for the last five years.

Population of the District of Colombo.

Town of Colombo				Total.	Corles or Divisions.	Grand Total of Colombo District.
Years.	Fort.	Pettah or Native Town.				
		Within.	Without.			
1816	657	4894	21664	27215	161286	188501
1826	734	4975	25475	31188	184172	215360
1827	514	4736	23916	29162	192982	222144
1828	499	4006	24454	28959	196543	225502
1829	495	4343	24792	29630	198637	228267
1830	465	4500	26990	31955	200768	232723
1831	432	4760	26357	31549	203242	234791
1832						237781

The population of the island, although comprising a variety of different nations, may be divided into four distinct classes:—first, The Singalese or Ceylonese (descended, as some say, from the Sings or Rajpoots of Hindoostan, and by others from the Siamese [1]) proper, who occupy Kandy, and the south and south west coasts of the island from Hambantotte to Chilaw. Second, the Malabars, or Hindoos, who invaded Ceylon from the opposite coast, and are in possession of the north and east coasts, and of the

[1] Is it not probable that the Jains of Upper India and Rajpoots are one and the same people with the Siamese or Buddhists of Siam?

peninsula of Jaffnapatam. Third, the Moors or descendants of the Arabs, or perhaps, from Mahomedans of Upper India, who are dispersed all over the island (as the Moslems are over Hindoostan) and in Pultam district form the mass of population. Fourth, Veddas or Beddas, the aborigines of the island, who dwell in the most untutored state (having neither habitations nor clothing) in the great forests which extend from the south to the east and north, and also in the most inaccessible parts of the interior, wild fruits and beasts being their sole sustenance, and the branches of large trees their resting place. There are some Malays, Caffres, and Javanese, a few Chinese, and Parsee traders, and a good many descendants of the Portuguese and Dutch, and even of the English mixed with native blood, scattered over the island. In colour the Singalese vary from light brown or olive to black; the eyes sometimes hazel, but the hair almost always black, long and silky; in height they are 5 ft. 4 to 5 ft. 7; clean made, with neat muscle, and small bone; the chest capacious, and the shoulders broad; and in the mountainous districts, like most other Highlanders, they have short but strong and rather muscular legs and thighs; the hands and feet, like those of the Hindoos, are uncommonly small; the head well shaped, perhaps in general longer than the European; the features often handsome, and generally intelligent and animated; the beard is unshorn, giving manliness to the youthful countenance, and dignity to that of age. The Singalese women, particularly those of the maritime provinces, are really handsome. The beau

ideal is thus described by a Kandian courtier, well versed in the attributes of an Eastern Venus :—‘ Her hair should be voluminous, like the tail of a peacock—long, reaching to the knees, and terminating in graceful curls ; her eyebrows should resemble the rainbow, her eyes the blue sapphire, and the petals of the blue manilla-flower ; her nose should be like the bill of the hawk ; her lips should be bright and red, like coral, or the young leaf of the iron tree ; her teeth should be small, regular, closely set, and like jessamine-buds : her neck should be large and round, resembling the herrigodea ; her chest capacious ; her breast firm and conical, like the yellow cocoa-nut, and her waist small—almost small enough to be clasped by the hand ; her hips wide ; limbs tapering ; soles of feet without any hollow ; and the surface of her body in general soft, delicate, smooth, and rounded, without the asperities of projecting bones and sinews.’ The foregoing may be considered the most general external character of the Singalese, who are rather remarkable for agility and flexibility of fibre than for strength and power of limb. Whatever may have been the extent of civilization in Ceylon at a remote period, at present I cannot say that the Singalese are superior, if indeed equal, to the Hindoos, in the domestic and fine arts ; although many branches of manufactures, such as the weaving of cotton and silk, the smelting of, and working in, gold, silver, iron, copper, &c. ; the cutting and setting of precious stones, the glazing of pottery, application of lacker, preparation of gunpowder, casting of cannon, distillation of spirits, &c. &c. are carried

on, it is by the most simple instruments, and with little aid from mechanics, and less from science. In the fine arts they are scarcely on a par with the Hindoos, and in their structures of a recent period certainly far behind the latter people, or even less advanced than the Burmese. They however possess great capabilities of instruction, and in the neighbourhood of the principal British stations are beginning to profit by the superior handicraft of the European artizan. It has been justly stated that the peasantry of Ceylon, as well as of India, generally possess land, from which they derive part of their subsistence. The wages of common labourers vary in different parts of the island from 6*d.* a day in Colombo to 3*d.* and 4½*d.* a day in the country. The government has interfered to fix these rates when requiring labourers; but higher demands are made to private employers, according to circumstances. Those who possess small portions of land rarely derive their support from them exclusively, but employ themselves in the fisheries, in trades and manufactures, and in the petty traffic of the country; and from the small amount of their individual gains there is reason to conclude, that if they could obtain regular employment near their homes, or even at a distance, from 6*d.* to 1*s.* a day would be generally acceptable to them.

The wages of mechanics and artizans are proportionally higher than those of labourers.

The minute subdivision of land has been accelerated in the maritime provinces by the Dutch law of inheritance. In fields, gardens, and plantations, which are farmed or held in joint ownership, the

interest of an individual proprietor is often limited to such fractional portions as are valued at a few pence. For example, the inheritance of one person will consist, in land, of nine-tenths of a seer of rice; trees, of five-twelfths of a cocoa-nut tree, and two-thirds of a jack-tree.

The attachment of the natives to these possessions is evinced by the fact, that they are often the subject of protracted law suits. There are a few native landholders in the Colombo district who possess about 1,000 acres each; but under the laws of inheritance these will in time be subdivided.

In the south-western division of the island, the cinnamon, pepper, cocoa-nut and coffee plantations, would claim attention; and in the northern division, cotton, opium, and tobacco. By extending the cultivation of these and other productions the internal markets for grain would be encouraged; the cinnamon gardens planted by the Dutch, which have been abandoned, would be re-occupied, and pepper, which is now imported, would be re-cultivated for exportation.

The manufacture of cocoa-nut oil, of coir rope and cable, and the distillation of arrack or rum from sugar, would become objects of general speculation, as they are now a source of profit to a few European merchants.

Caste, as respects the Singalese and Malabars, is scrupulously preserved, and very widely ramified, almost every occupation having its distinct caste. There are, for instance, the gold and silversmiths' caste, the fishers', the barbers', the washermen,

the manufacturers of jaghery (sugar), the toddy drawers', the lime-makers', &c. &c. &c.; but the highest and most esteemed caste is that of Vellalahs, or Goyas, whose occupations are purely agricultural; however as land is assigned for the performance of every description of service, the practice of agriculture is not confined to this class, but is exercised by persons of all castes for their subsistence. By the Kandyan laws the intermarriage of the high and low castes is prohibited, and many distinctions recognized and enforced, by which the latter are degraded and reduced to a servile state, now considered hereditary. While the Malabars professing the Hindu faith maintain the religious, as well as the civil distinction of caste, the Singalese or Buddhists have abolished the former and retained the latter; hence, perhaps, the hostilities which prevailed between both sects, whose sacred dogmas are both apparently based on the creed and doctrines of Menû, the great Hindoo lawgiver, an illustration for which will be found by contemplating the parallel of the Romanists and Lutherans, the essentials of whose religion, stripped of externals, are for the most part alike. The distinctions of caste in Hindoostan as well as in Siam, Birmah, and Ceylon, had their origin in a superabundant population pressing too closely on the heels of subsistence, and it was perhaps thought that the introduction of a minute division of labour would not only give more extended employment, but also enable each person to learn more carefully his business; probably, also, it was politically conjectured that the division of an immense population of so

many millions into castes or sects, would render the task of government more easy, by keeping every individual in a fixed station in society. Women, as in most parts of the East, are looked on as an inferior race of beings, and not fit to be trusted, as will be seen by the following popular distich translated from the Singalese language :—

> 'I've seen the udumbara tree in flower [1], white plumage on the crow,
> And fishes' footsteps o'er the deep, have traced through ebb and flow ;
> If man it is who thus asserts, his word you may believe,
> But all that woman says distrust—she speaks but to deceive.'

Buddhist or Singalese Religion.—The religion of the Singalese is Buddhism, the early history of which is little known. Many Hindoo writers agree, that *Budh* or *Boodh*, is supposed to be the ninth avatar or incarnation of *Vishnu* (the second person of the Hindoo Triad, and God of preservation ;) having appeared for the purpose of reclaiming the Hindoos from many abominations into which they had fallen, and to teach them more benevolent forms of worship, than through the means of human and animal sacrifices which they then extensively (and with respect to animals now) practised. These doctrines, says Mr. Coleman, being too simple, and therefore interfering too strongly with the privileges of the Brahminical priests, a religious war ensued between the old and new sects, and the Buddhists were ultimately expelled from the peninsula of India.

[1] A species of fig-tree, which never bears flowers.

[Here we find a striking analogy to the incarnation of our Saviour.] But the Buddhists, in general, will not tolerate the idea of superior antiquity being vested in the Brahminical faith; they deny the identity of their deity with the ninth avatar of Vishnu, which they declare was a mere manifestation of his power. They do not acknowledge a creation of the universe, but assert that it has been destroyed many times and by some extraordinary operation as often reproduced. They enumerate twenty-two of these regenerated worlds, each of which was successively governed by Buddhas, and that the present universe has been ruled successively by four, of whom *Gautama* or *Gaudama* (whose doctrines now prevail in Ceylon, Ava, Siam, &c.) is the fourth; a fifth, Maitree Buddha, is yet to come, previous to which this world will be destroyed.

The commandments of Buddha were originally five (necessary towards salvation) but five others were added, which were meritorious but not imperative. The first five are—1st. Not to kill a living creature of any kind; 2nd. Not to steal; 3rd. Not to commit adultery; 4th. Not to speak an untruth on any occasion; 5th. Not to use intoxicating liquors or drugs. The meritorious commands are—not to eat after mid-day; and not to sleep on costly, soft, or elevated beds, (but on clean mats) or indulge sensually. The others inculcate, generally, virtue and benevolence, and the practice of individual abstinence.

The heavens of the Buddhists are twenty-six, placed one above another; which together with their

hells[1] are thus described by Mr. Coleman; and it will be seen that there is indeed much need of the light of education and Christianity, to remove such ideas from the minds of an otherwise intelligent and fine looking race of human beings:—

The heavens of the Buddhas are 26, placed one above another. At the end of the *maka calpi*, when the world will be at an end, six of the lower of these celestial abodes will be destroyed by fire, four by storms, and six by water. The four superior heavens will escape destruction; but what will become of the six intermediate ones does not so clearly appear.

The Great Hells are 34; but besides these there are 120 smaller hells. Those which are hot lie immediately under the earth; which may possibly account for the many volcanoes, whirlpools, and sundry explosive and other turbulent things that it contains.

The punishment for sinners in these hells are as correspondingly degrading, as the condition of the good is in the heavens transcendently happy; with this difference, that in their amended state they contrive to forget (a thing very uncommon in this lower world of ours) what they ascended from: whereas, in their debased situation, their reminiscences are more perfect; as we are told of a priestly dignitary, who having, for practices it may be presumed partaking of the nature of the insect, been transformed into a louse, became so absolutely miserable at the idea of his goods and chattels, especially his garment, in which he took great pride (unlike the pious and patriarchal pastors of the western world, who entertain no such proud or selfish feelings, or worldly considerations for rich garments or rich chattels of any kind) being divided among the surviving priests, that his agitation was painfully obvious to

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[1] I have generally found, that the more barbarous the nation the more their religion was one of fear; and the greater the intelligence and morality, the less the fear and the higher the love.—R. M. M.

his old associates, who, with the feeling common to their order towards sentient animals, applied to Gautama to know what to do. The deity desired them to wait seven days (the term of a louse's life,) in which time the miserable insect would be emancipated in some way from his then unhappy state. A louse's mental agony is, however, but as the bite of one to some of the infernal punishments of the Buddha's Tartarus. Assura Nat are their Minos and Rhadamanthus, and, as it may be imagined, are not very tender in awarding to their opponents their full share of any tortures which their misdeeds may have called for. One of these is, that a man as big as three mountains, and who is always in a hungry state, is tantalized by having a mouth no larger than the eye of the finest needle. The punishments attributed to the hells of the Buddhas assimilate very nearly to those ascribed to the Tartari of the Indus.

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE WORLD will, it is imagined, take place in the following manner. A great rain will, at a future time fall, in torrents; after which not a drop will descend from the heavens for a hundred thousand years. In this period, plants, animals, and every living thing will perish, the sun and the moon will disappear, and, in their stead, two false suns will arise. The one will succeed the other, rising when it sets. There will then be no night. The heat will be intense, and small bodies of water dried up. A third sun will arise and dry up the largest rivers; a fourth, and fifth will come and dry up the different seas; a sixth will rend asunder the 1,010,000 earths, from whose rents will be emitted smoke and flames. By the seventh sun the heavenly mountain Mienmo, and all its celestial inhabitants, will be consumed. The destroying fire, having then nothing more to feed it, will expire of its own accord.

FUTURE STATE.—The Buddhas allege that every thing exists from natural causes; that virtue brings its own reward and vice its own punishment; and that the state of man is probationary. If he be virtuous, he will, after death, ascend to one of the lower heavens, but will be born again many times: and as he may each time continue virtuous, or according to

the extent of his virtue, he will progressively ascend in the scale of celestial bliss, till he may finally reach the highest heaven, and obtain *Nivani* or *absorption*, not as the Hindus believe, into a supreme being, which would not be in accordance with the doctrines of the Buddhas, but a kind of cessation of animal suffering, and exemption from farther transmigration. [In fact *nothingness.*]

If he have been wicked, he will, in like manner, descend into the different hells, and will exist again in the forms of different animals, according to the nature and extent of his sins; but the duration of his punishment is not eternal, and is still supposed to depend upon himself. He may thus, according to his conduct in the various forms he may exist in, be again elevated to the probationary condition of man; and, although his crimes may have once degenerated him into a lion, or, as just noticed, into a louse, a monkey, a mammoth, or a maggot, he will still, on attaining the state of man, be in a condition to look forward, by the practice of virtue, to obtain at a future period the blissful reward of Nivani. [Or Nothingness!] If, however, he continue to be wicked in this degraded and degenerate state, he will descend still lower and become a devil, than which nothing can be imagined more base or miserable.

Gaudama has enjoined, as a necessary qualification to obtain *Nivani* or *absorption*, the performance of *dana*, or the bestowing of alms; and of *bavana*, which consists in pronouncing three words: *aneizzo*, *doccha*, and *anatta*. The first is to show that he recollects that life is subject to vicissitudes; the second, that man is thereby liable to misfortune; and the third, that exemption from either does not depend upon himself.

Priesthood.—The Buddhas do not, like the Brahmins, respect fire; and the *rahans* (or priests) never kindle one, lest they should thereby destroy the life of an animal [1]. They

[1] A Buddhist priest, on being shown the animalculæ in a glass of water, rather than continue to live even on water, is said to have voluntarily starved himself.

consequently do not cook any food; though they eat that which has possessed life, provided it be ready dressed; such, at least, appears to be the case in Ava, but in some places it is said to be different. They commonly subsist on provisions given as alms; to collect which they issue every morning from their convents, as early as it is sufficiently light for them to distinguish the veins on their hands. They do not beg, but they stop before every house in a street. If food be given to them, they put it into their sabeit or baskets, and pass on without returning thanks: if none be given they go on to the next house in silence. They are clothed in a large yellow mantle, folded becomingly round them, passing over the left shoulder and leaving the right shoulder and breast uncovered. They shave their heads and beards, and go barefooted: are usually clean, but do not wear any ornaments. On receiving the sacerdotal rank, they are enjoined to live in houses built under trees in the woods; but these injunctions are qualified, so that they usually reside in convents or colleges, which in Ava are described as the best habitations in the empire, built in the most agreeable situations.

They are well conducted, kind and hospitable to strangers, and are the best informed men in the Burman empire. Each college has a head, called zara or teacher; of which, according to the size of the colleges, or the estimation in which they are held, there are degrees. The head of the colleges is the zarado or royal abbot. Towards the whole of them the utmost respect and attention are shown. They are the gratuitous instructors of youth, which is considered as a work of merit.

During their priesthood they must remain in a state of celibacy, and observe other strict regulations; but may, at any time, leave their convent and marry, which is frequently done.

The Buddhists do not, strictly speaking, believe in a Supreme Being; the Jains, however, (one of the sects of Boodh) do, and also admit of castes, which the former deny; yet the Jains assert that the Supreme Being has no power over the universe. The dead are generally burned as among the Hindoos, where the Ganges is not contiguous.

To counteract the effects of this idolatrous system, great efforts are making by various classes of Christians; and as a specimen of those efforts, as also as an indication of their result, I subjoin the following report of the Wesleyan Missions for 1835.

REPORT OF THE WESLEYAN MISSION, SEA COAST DISTRICT, (FOR 1835).

Colombo and Colpetty—Messrs. Clough and Toyne; John Anthoniez, Assistant Missionary. *Negombo*—Mr. Kilner; Peter G. de Silva, Assistant Missionary. *Caltura*—Mr. Bridgnell; Cornelius Wijesingha, Assistant Missionary. *Galle*—Mr. M'Kenny; John A. Poulier, Assistant Missionary. *Matura*—Mr. D. I. Gogerly; Daniel D. Perera, Assistant Missionary. *Moruwa Corle*—W. A. Lalmon, Assistant Missionary. Ninety-three schoolmasters and nine school-mistresses, chiefly natives.

More than twenty years have elapsed since the commencement of the Wesleyan Mission in the island of Ceylon. This Christian enterprize for the evangelization of an important portion of the eastern possessions of the British Empire commanded, from the first, much public interest, which was heightened by its proving to be the last missionary undertaking of the apostolic Dr. Coke, and by the circumstances of trial and difficulty in which his companions were placed by his unexpected death. The mission had to be reared from its foundation; difficult languages were to be learned; and a knowledge of the character of the people and of the country was to be acquired. With grateful acknowledgments to the God of missions it is mentioned, that very much more than

could have been reasonably expected has been accomplished. Ten mission stations, each of them embracing an extensive tract of country, have been formed. The several languages used by the inhabitants, whether learned or vernacular, have been acquired; the holy scriptures have been translated; other valuable books have been composed or rendered into the native tongues; an extensive school system, affording daily instruction to upwards of 4000 children, has been established; several hundreds of the heathen and of professing Christians have been united in religious fellowship; the strongholds of atheism and idolatry have been boldly attacked, and shaken to their foundation; and the leaven of Christianity is finding access into the remotest parts and most exclusive circles of the island. The committee add with pleasure, that other committees are contributing to the work of evangelizing this interesting land. The Bible Society has with its accustomed munificence sanctioned, year after year, a liberal issue of copies of the sacred volume from the mission press. Some of the Missionary Societies of our own country, and of the United States of America, (for in this cause there is now, happily, a generous fellowship of Christian nations, as well as of the various British churches,) have sent their agents into Ceylon as fellow labourers for its spiritual cultivation; and it is not doubted that, by the present and by every generation of the inhabitants, the benignant reign of Britain, and the zealous efforts of the spiritual labourers employed under its protection, will be gratefully acknowledged.

From Point Pedro, in the north of the island, Mr. Stott writes as follows :—

‘ There is an intense desire among the people of this district to receive Bibles and tracts. When I am on the road they crowd round me, and say ‘ Give us books.’ ‘ We want to read, and to know the Christian religion : you teach it to us, but we want books that we may read about it in our houses, and teach it to our neighbours.’ Sometimes they call after me, ‘ Give us books, that we may know whether your religion or ours is the better.” The farmers in the field say, ‘ We attend your preaching, therefore you ought to give us books.” ‘ Others say, ‘ We were taught in your schools, therefore you should give us books.’ Some say, ‘ We have carefully kept those you gave us, give us more.’ Others, ‘ We can read, give us books.’ Thus they make many demands on me, and I have given them great numbers of the scriptures and of tracts, but not at all sufficient to meet the wants or satisfy the wishes of the people. These, I think, are pleasing indications, and tokens that the Lord is imparting a desire to know the way of salvation by Jesus Christ.’

In the south of Ceylon the cause of Christianity is making progress ; several new places of worship have been erected ; many of the villagers have contributed materials for these buildings, and others have afforded their labours gratuitously. From the Caltura station Mr. Bridgnell writes—

‘ This day I have preached four times in four villages, have examined and catechised the children of

four schools, and distributed during the day several copies of a tract, entitled, ' A Warning to Heathens' —some in crossing the ferry, others to passengers on the road, and others among the retired inhabitants of the jungle. A greater spirit of curiosity is excited than I have ever seen before. Whether the total number of Buddhist priests is decreasing I cannot tell; but I know of six priests who, since my appointment to this mission, have thrown off their robes, and whose places have not subsequently been supplied.'

In reporting the state of the schools, Mr. Bridgnell says—

' I can sincerely affirm it as my full conviction that our mission schools are the most highly important of those auxiliary means by which we endeavour to teach and preach Jesus Christ. The children make encouraging progress in the knowledge of heavenly things; and their parents, and other adults attending the public examinations, receive much instruction by means of the catechisms, and by the reading of the scriptures in the various schools. Many of the children despise the absurdities of idol worship and Buddhism, and refuse to join in heathenish ceremonies. ' Out of the mouths of babes and sucklings God has perfected praise.' '

State of the mission.—*Colombo.*—' During the past year we have had many trials and difficulties to contend with; however we have reason to rejoice that we have not been without prosperity. Our work in the fort has been of a very pleasing character. Our congregations in general have been too large for the chapel to contain. The word of life has been

received with the utmost seriousness; sinners have been converted, penitents pardoned, believers built up in their most holy faith, and a few have entered into their eternal rest. We have now three classes in the garrison, which contain forty-four members, who are walking worthy of their high calling, and labouring to adorn the doctrine of God our Saviour. The female class of natives at the new Bazaar continue faithful and stedfast. Our cause at Colpetty is progressive. The class met by the resident preacher consists of ten, all of whom enjoy the saving grace of God. The members of the native class, with one exception, have continued steady; several of its members walk three or four miles every sabbath to attend it. The Singhalese service in the Colpetty school continues interesting; frequently the school is well filled with children and adults.'

'Number in society 84.'

Negombo.—"The state of our society on this station is somewhat encouraging. We have eleven classes, containing 164 members, which are met regularly every week either by the superintendent or one of his assistants. Besides the classes, there are upwards of thirty persons who meet together at our small bungalow at Bandarawatee, every Wednesday, for the purpose of being instructed in the principles of Christianity.

'Several deaths have occurred in our little society the last year, amongst whom one of our catechists is numbered. He had been employed in that capacity on the Negombo station since the commencement of our mission there, and on every occasion manifested his zeal for the more extensive diffusion of our holy

religion. Although his path had been darkened for many years in consequence of constant domestic trials, over which he had no control, and which continued to the day of his death, yet the conversations which I had with him during his affliction afforded me sufficient evidence that he possessed an enlightened confidence in God his Saviour, and that his prospects of future happiness were clear and distinct. As in life, so in death, the arm of the Lord sustained him.

'Several members of the Mukelangam class have lately begun to hold prayer meetings in the houses of the people in that neighbourhood. This is a new thing amongst them, and will, I trust, be the means of inducing many to embrace the truth as it is in Jesus. At the school of this village a very interesting juvenile class has been lately formed, as also at Bandarawatee, of twelve members. We cannot but hope that the means which are now in regular and active operation on this station will soon prove effectual to the pulling down of the strong holds of heathenism which yet remain. Number in society 164, children 21; total 185.'

Caltura.—'Number in society 64, children 98; total 162."

Galle.—'We have a good English congregation on the Wednesday evenings in Galle, as many of the inhabitants understand English, and attend regularly: and among the few who are united with us in church fellowship there are several decidedly pious and holy persons. Their attachment to the public ordinances is deserving of notice. The Lord has given testimony to the word of his grace—many are raised up

as witnesses of the power of God to save, and, having felt the blessedness of religion in their own souls, are desirous that others should be made partakers of like precious faith. We have recently adopted a plan of visiting the people from house to house, to speak to them individually on the concerns of their souls. The time we have fixed upon for these visits is two o'clock every sabbath afternoon, which, although the hottest part of the day, yet, being the time when we are most likely to find the people in their houses, we judged the best. The subjects of our addresses to the people during these friendly visits are personal and family religion, and especially the necessity of the observance of the Christian sabbath. The benefits resulting from this plan soon appeared, and continue to be manifested in the numbers who attend our public ministry, and the desire for religious knowledge that is awakening amongst the people.

'A new version of the Ceylon-Portuguese scriptures is now passing through the press. The New Testament is already published, and it is delightful to see the eagerness with which it has been read. Many have declared the satisfaction they will feel, and the comfort with which they will die, if they are spared to read the Old Testament scriptures in a language they understand.

'Many of the natives also are induced to read our scriptures. Numbers of children are from time to time going from our schools with their minds partially informed on religious subjects, and with their prejudices in favour of the religion of their forefathers considerably weakened. A small number come to the native service in the chapel in the fort

on sabbath mornings; and in one of our schools where we preach on Thursday evenings, besides Sundays, we generally have a small congregation of adults, and intend to form a native class.

'In our other schools, in which we have service, there are a few who attend regularly; but listlessness and unconcern about the things of eternity characterize the bulk of the people. 'Come from the four winds, O breath, and breathe upon these slain, that they may live!''

Number in society 48.

Matura.—"This circuit presents an extensive and interesting field of usefulness among the natives. The work is great but the labourers are few. And I fear that this circuit may have suffered for want of more labourers. However we have still enough to excite our gratitude, and to encourage us to persevere. Number in society 64."

Moruwa Corle.—'Our congregations in private houses, in the villages, and in the school here, are on the increase, but their attendance is not regular; it depends altogether upon the state of the weather, and the times which they are not employed in their cultivating business, &c. However, upon the whole it appears that the light of the gospel is now diffusing in these parts, and much solemnity is apparent in our assemblies. I cannot but observe that there is already a visible reformation among several of the people here. Some once notorious drunkards and quarrelsome men are now soberly and industriously employed in providing for their families; some, who leaving their families were always in the gambling

places, are spending their time now in better occupation; others who lived profligately are now ashamed, and confess it with sorrow. The common coolies reprove each other, when they hear any one cursing or swearing. Number in society 30, children 17; total 47.'

Total members in the Singhalese District 590.

SCHOOLS.—COLOMBO.—*Pettah English School.*—'For a time we were obliged to suspend this school. However, we have procured two teachers who are equal to their work, and have re-opened it. 21 boys and 3 girls have been received.

2. '*Colpetty School* has prospered and given much satisfaction during the past year; at present it contains 64 children, 6 of whom are girls. In this Institution both English and Singhalese are taught by the same master, who is laborious in the discharge of his duty.

3. *New Bazaar.*—'The discontinuance of a Bazaar in that part of Colombo has occasioned the removal of many native families, and altogether altered the character of the place; 26 children attend, 7 of whom can read the scriptures.

4. *Nagalgam.*—'This school continues to be interesting and prosperous. The school contains 66 children, 22 of whom are girls. Both Singhalese and English are taught. In this school divine service is held every Sunday, and a native class met by the preacher after service.

5. *Kehelwatte School*—'contains at present 36 boys, 9 of whom read the scriptures with considerable accuracy.

6. *Kaloboville School*—‘ contains 65 boys, 24 of whom can read the scriptures, write on paper and olas, and repeat a good part of the Catechism.

7. *Dehewella.*—‘ This village contains a numerous population of low caste people, who appear to value in some degree the instruction and improvement of their children; 57 attend the school; 21 can read the scriptures.’

NEGOMBO.—‘ On this station there are 16 schools in various degrees of efficiency, some of them very useful. They are under the care of 23 male and 2 female teachers, and contain 542 boys and 100 girls; total 642.’

CALTURA.—‘ Seventeen schools in connection with this station are taught by 27 male teachers and 1 female. They contain 834 boys and 69 girls; total 903.’

GALLE.—‘ The schoolmasters of this circuit generally have afforded satisfaction during the past year. The children of two of the nearest schools attend divine service in the Chapel in the Fort, and are regularly catechised after preaching. In all the other schools divine service is held once and in some twice on the Lord's day.’

1. *Fort School.*—‘ This school continues in a prosperous state. At present the number on the books is 54 boys and 14 girls.

2. *Kalegane.*—‘ The number of children in this school is 12.

3. *Mahamodera School.*—‘ contains 43 boys and 8 girls.

4. *Dangederah School.*—'The state of this school is encouraging, and it at present contains 52 boys and 15 girls. The girls sew plain work neatly. A number of the boys read the Testament, and most of them repeat the Catechism, Creed, and Ten Commandments.

5. *Unuwattune School* 'is suspended for the present.

6. *Bopey School.*—'The average attendance is 33.

7. *Dawatue School.*—'The number of children is 72; the master is an active, intelligent man.

8. *Wewelle School.*—'The number on the books 74 boys, 28 girls, of which number 19 read in the Testament.

9. *Tottagamey School* 'contains 50 boys; 16 read the Testament, and 20 know the Catechism, &c.

10. *Mallawenne School.*—'This school contains 44 boys.

11. *Amblamgoddey School.*—'At one part of the year the country fever prevailed in this village. The number on our list at present is 42 boys, of whom 16 read in the Testament, 24 repeat the Prayers, Catechism, Ten Commandments,' &c.

Matura.—'The masters of the circuit are met by our assistants at Matura every Saturday forenoon, for the purpose of receiving religious instruction, that they may be better qualified for the discharge of the duties of their office. The meetings are opened and closed with prayer, and the plan of the Sunday

services is made known. Any complaints which are to be made regarding the public conduct of the masters are then preferred against them, and their characters are investigated. If the charge of open sin, of the neglect of duty, or of their attendance on any heathen ceremonies, is substantiated, they are dismissed from their situation: if no decisive evidence can be obtained, they are suspended for a time until the fact is ascertained.

1. *Matura English School.*—' The number of boys who attend is 40, many of whom are the sons of the most respectable natives in the neighbourhood, who read well in the Bible, and are considerably advanced in arithmetic. All the boys learn the second part of the Conference catechism, and commit hymns to memory. Tracts are frequently distributed amongst them, and much good may be expected to result.

2. *Matura Singhalese* ' school contains 43 boys.

3. *Pittacatua* ' school is in a flourishing state, and some of the boys are very promising. The village in which this school stands is very populous, so that we have preaching here on Sabbath mornings and Wednesday evenings. The attention which the boys manifest during divine service is truly pleasing. By the blessing of God we hope to see much good done in this village: the number of boys in the school is 55.

Weradura ' school has revived during the past year; several girls have been added, who are taught to read and to write; and a woman is employed to teach them to sew, who is paid by the masters.

There are at present 28 boys and 20 girls who attend the school.

Dondrah ' school 1st. has been suspended until we can obtain for it more suitable masters. When this school was discontinued it contained 18 boys who read in the Testament, 17 who repeated the Catechism and Prayers, and 20 who could write.

Dondrah ' school 2d. contains 61 boys, of whom 20 read in the Testament, 46 can repeat the Lord's prayer, the Creed, the Ten Commandments, and the morning and evening prayers. The second master of this school is an active young man, who was himself taught in one of our schools, and the children under his care increase in the knowledge of divine truth. At one of the public examinations,—it having been observed that the scriptures teach us that all things were created by God, but that Budha says, every thing was made of itself,—an appeal was made to the boys, who they thought spoke the truth, Jehovah or Budha, when a little boy about eight years of age boldly cried aloud, that God spoke the truth, for he made all things; but that Budha told a lie. This saying much surprised many of the worshippers of Budha who were witnessing the examination.

Naurunna ' school is situated about eight miles from Matura, and contains 34 boys and 10 girls.

Weregampitte ' school contains 36 boys and 23 girls, many of whom are newly admitted; 14 boys and 2 girls however read in the Testament.

Tudawa School.—' The village in which this

school is situated is thinly inhabited, and I fear we shall be obliged to discontinue it at the end of this year.

Nupey School.—'There are 50 boys in this school: 15 read well in the Testament, and a very considerable part of the children who attend can repeat the Catechism, the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, the Ten Commandments, and the morning and evening prayers at the end of the Catechism. During the past year 12 boys have left this school, who are able to read for themselves the word of eternal life.

Belligam Boys' School.—' Of the number who remain in this school, 19 can read the scriptures, and a considerable number attend the public worship of Almighty God in the Belligam chapel every Lord's day.'

Belligam Girls' School.—' Most of the girls attend our chapel for divine service every sabbath, and more would attend were they not prevented by great poverty.

Pallane School.—' In this school 30 boys and 11 girls are taught. Divine service is conducted in the school every sabbath. We have an average attendance of 15 adults, who, with the children, form an interesting congregation.

Merisse School.—' The people of this village call themselves Christians, being baptized when infants; but all of them are worshippers of Budha and of devils. The schools contain 60 children, 17 of whom read the scriptures. And we have an average of 20 adults, who attend divine service in the school every sabbath afternoon.

Moruwa Corle.—' On this station there is only one school, containing 40 boys and 10 girls: many favourable opportunities of establishing additional schools have occurred, and are under the consideration of the District Meeting.

' In the Cingalese district there are 66 schools, 93 masters, 9 mistresses, 2730 boys, and 447 girls; total 3177."

TAMUL DISTRICT.—' *Jaffna*, Mr. Percival; Solomon Valoopulle and J. Matthiez, Assistant Missionaries. *Point Pedro*, Mr. George. *Trincomalee*, Mr. Stott; J. Hunter, Assistant Missionary. *Batticaloa*, J. Katts and John P. Saumuggam, Assistant Missionaries.

Twenty Salaried School Teachers.

" In this district there are 135 members of society. The schools are as follows:—*Jaffna*—Pettah Portuguese Female School contains 46 scholars; Bazaar Tamul School, 80; Vannarpanne, 84; Thattan, 51; Cockoovil, 50. *Point Pedro*—Tamul School, 35; Chetty Terru, 52; Tampacitty, 37; Ploly, 45; Alvoy, 31; Caravatty, 49. *Trincomalee*—Nalavah Theroo Tamul School, 96; Temple Tamul School, 62; Thamplagam, 60. *Batticaloa*—Pullyantheevoo English School, 22; ditto Tamul ditto, 45; Nahvacoodah Tamul ditto, 40; Ahrelpatthy Tamul ditto, 42; Marootha'muny Tamul ditto, 70; Ahrahoor Tamul ditto, 55; total in the district, 1032."

CHAPTER IV.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT — INDIA ESTABLISHMENTS—MILITARY DEFENCE — FINANCES—COMMERCE —SHIPPING—GENERAL VIEW OF CEYLON.

The legislative administration of the island is confided to the governor, aided by a council composed from among the oldest and most distinguished European civil servants, appointed by the governor or sometimes by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in England, and comprising six unofficial members selected from the chief landed proprietors, or principal merchants : it is provided that printed copies of proposed ordinances be sent to the members ten days before the summoning of the council, and the regulations or laws of the government are published in the Official Gazette some time before their enactment, in order to elicit public discussion ; when passed into law they take immediate effect in the maritime districts on their publication, and in the Kandyan districts by the governor's proclamation, subject in both to the final approval of the queen in council. There is a special board for the administration of the affairs of the Kandyan Provinces, whom the governor is in the habit of consulting previous to his extension of an enactment there, which may have been ordained for the lower or maritime provinces. In the maritime provinces the governor is restricted from authorising contingent disbursements exceeding 75*l.*, without the concurrence of the council; but in the Kandyan pro-

vinces he orders expenditure on his own control. In his executive capacity the governor refers or not to the council, as he wills, but his proceedings are recorded in the secretary for government's office, or in the department charged with the execution of the measure. The regulations of the government are published with the translations in the native languages (Cingalese and Malabar), and widely disseminated.

Three classes of persons are employed in carrying on the business of government: first, the civil servants, who are sent out as 'writers' from England, under the patronage of the Secretary of State for the Colonies; there are twenty-five principal appointments in the island, to which these gentlemen are alone eligible, the *seniors* being exclusively employed as heads of departments, in the revenue, as government agents, chief secretary, paymaster, or auditor-general, &c. &c.: as collectors of districts and provincial judges and magistrates. The *juniors* as assistants to the collectors or magistrates, and in the chief secretary's department. On its present footing the effective civil service consists of thirty-eight members; an acquirement of one or both of the native languages is indispensable previous to the holding of a responsible situation. The second class is formed of Europeans (not of the civil service), or their descendants, from among whom are appointed provincial magistrates (of which rank there are sixteen), and clerks in public offices. The third class comprises the natives, who hold the situations of modeliars (or lieutenants) of korles (or districts),

interpreters to the courts of justice, and to the collectors' offices or cutcheries. The modeliars are still recognized according to ancient custom as commanders of the lascoreigns or district militia, although at present chiefly employed in the civil administration of the country, and in the execution of public works. There are, of course, gradations of native officers in authority under them; the assistants of all natives are still regulated in a great degree by caste. Independent of the numerous government 'headmen' and the titular 'headmen' who receive no emoluments, there are, in conformity to ancient usage, headmen appointed to each caste or class, some of whom receive certain perquisites as the head of fishermen do of the fish caught, &c. Since 1828 no 'headmen' have been appointed who could not read and write the English language, and the headmen form a valuable connecting link in the social fabric, as well as an intelligent and respectable body of individuals, from among whom the government can select officers for the more immediate service of the state. The number of principal headmen in the Cingalese districts amounts to 243. In the Malabar to 112, and in the Kandyan to 47; these numbers do not include the headmen of villages, who are more numerous.

The fourth class consist of officers selected from the regiments serving in Ceylon, for the fulfilment of the post of government agents or sitting magistrates in the Kandyan provinces, the duties of which are performed efficiently and creditably upon small salaries in addition to their military allowances.

Patronage.—All appointments to the higher offices are provisionally made by the governor, who selects candidates from the civil service according to their seniority, when otherwise qualified, subject, however, to the confirmation of the Secretary of State in England.

The magistrates and clerks are also appointed by the government; the modeliars and principal headmen hold their appointments under His Excellency's warrant, being recommended by the Commissioner of Revenue, the provincial headmen being recommended by the Collectors of Districts. In the Kandyan provinces appointments are similarly made by the governor, on the recommendation of the Board of Commissioners (to whom the more immediate management of those provinces is committed), including the chiefs or principal headmen of provinces or departments, the chiefs of temples, and the priests in the colleges or wihares. In the northern or Malabar provinces the headmen of villages or castes are commonly appointed on the nomination of the inhabitants, a deputation of villagers making a return to the magistrate of the candidate approved of by them.

Judicial establishment.—Justice is administered first by a supreme court, with powers equivalent to the Court of Queen's Bench, and in equitable jurisdiction to the High Court of Chancery; it is presided over by three judges[1], appointed from England,

[1] The chief and two puisne judges hold office during the pleasure of the crown, and may be suspended upon proof of incapacity or misconduct by the governor and council.

aided by a Queen's Advocate (whose functions are similar to the Lord Advocate of Scotland), Master in Equity and Registrar, also appointed from home: and thanks to the enlightened patriotism of Sir Alexander Johnson, trial by jury, (with reference to Europeans or natives), is established under its supremacy.

The island has been recently divided into five provinces, the north, south, east, west, and central, each of which are again subdivided into districts.

Within each district, there is one court, called the District Court, holden before one judge, and three assessors; the district judge is appointed by the crown, and removable at pleasure; the assessors are selected from amongst the inhabitants of the island, whether natives or otherwise, twenty-one years of age, possessing certain qualifications. The right of appointing, in each district court, one person to act as permanent assessor, is reserved to the crown. The officers of the district courts are appointed in like manner as those of the Supreme Court.

The Supreme Court is held at Colombo (except on circuit), and the district courts at a convenient specified place in each district.

Each district court is a court of civil and criminal jurisdiction, and has cognizance of and full power to hear and determine civil suits, in which the defendant is resident, or in which the subject of action shall have occurred, within the district (where the judge is a party, the court adjoining takes cognizance of the cause); and to try all offences, short of such as are punishable with death, transportation, or banishment,

imprisonment for more than a year, whipping exceeding one hundred lashes, a fine exceeding 10*l.*, which shall have been committed within the district.

Each district court has the care and custody of the persons and estates of idiots and lunatics resident within the district, with power to appoint guardians and curators; and power to appoint administrators of intestates' effects within the district, and to determine the validity of wills and to record and grant probate thereof, and to take securities from executors and administrators, and to require accounts of such persons.

Offences against the revenue laws are cognizable before the district courts (saving the rights of the Vice Admiralty Courts), limited as in respect to criminal persecutions.

The judgments and interlocutory and other orders of the district courts, are pronounced in open court, the judge stating, in the hearing of the assessors, the questions of law and fact, with the grounds and reasons of his opinion; and the assessors declare, in open court, their respective opinions and votes on each and every question of law or fact: in case of a difference of opinion between the judge and the majority of the assessors, the opinion of the judge prevails and is taken as the sentence of the whole court, a record being made and preserved of the vote of each.

The Supreme Court is a court of sole appellate jurisdiction for the district courts, with original criminal jurisdiction throughout the island: civil and criminal sessions of the supreme court are held

by one of the judges in each circuit, twice in each year: all the judges are required to be never absent at the same time from Colombo, and also to be resident at the same time at Colombo, not less than one month, twice in each year.

At every civil session of the supreme court, on circuit, three assessors are associated with the judge: and every criminal session is held before the judge and a jury of thirteen men. In all civil suits, the judge and assessors deliver their opinions and votes as in the district courts; in appeals from the district courts, in criminal prosecutions, the appeal has not the effect of staying the execution of the sentence, unless the judge of the district court see fit. All questions of fact, upon which issue shall be joined at any criminal sessions of the supreme court, on circuit, are decided by the jury, or major part of them; questions of law are decided by the judge in open court, with the grounds and reasons thereof.

Where a person is adjudged to die by the supreme court, at a criminal sessions, execution is respited till the case be reported by the presiding judge to the governor.

Judges on circuit holding criminal sessions are required to direct all fiscals and keepers of prisons, within the circuit, to certify the persons committed, and their offences, who may be required to be brought before the judge.

The judges of the supreme court, on circuit, examine the records of the district courts, and if it shall appear that contradictory or inconsistent decisions have been given by the same or different district courts, the judges report the same to the supreme court at

Colombo, who prepare the draft of a declaratory law upon the subject, and transmit it to the governor, who submits such draft to the legislative council. The supreme court also makes rules and orders for the removal of doubts.

The supreme court, or any judge of the same, at sessions or on circuit, may grant or refuse writs of *habeas corpus* and injunctions; it may require district courts to transmit to Colombo the records in any case appealed, and may hear and decide appeals, in a summary way, without argument, and may frame and establish rules and orders of the court, not repugnant to the charter, which promote the discovery of truth, economy, and expedition in business, to be drawn up in plain and succinct terms, avoiding unnecessary repetitions and obscurity.

Appeals are allowed to the Queen in Council, subject to the following rules and limitations:—1. The appeal must be brought, by way of review, before the judges of the supreme court collectively, holding a general sessions at Colombo, at which all the judges shall be present. 2. The matter in dispute must exceed the value of 500*l*. 3. Leave to appeal must be applied for within fourteen days. 4. If the appellant be the party against whom sentence is given, the sentence shall be carried into execution, if the respondent shall give security for the immediate performance of any sentence pronounced by the Privy Council, until which the sentence appealed from shall be stayed. 5. If the appellant shall show that real justice requires the stay of execution, pending the appeal, the supreme court may stay execution, on security, as before. 6. In all cases the appellant shall

give security to prosecute the appeal, and for costs. 7. The court appealed from shall determine the nature of the securities. 8. Where the subject of litigation is immoveable property, and the judgment appealed from shall not affect the occupancy, security is not to be required; but if the judgment do affect the occupancy, then the security shall not be of greater amount than to restore the property, and the intermediate profit accruing from the occupancy, pending the appeal. 9. Where the subject of litigation consists of chattels or personal property, the security shall, in all cases, be a bond to the amount or mortgage. 10. The security for prosecution of appeal and for costs shall in no case exceed 300*l*. 11. The security must be completed within three months from the date of the petition of leave to appeal. 12. Any person feeling aggrieved by any order respecting security or appeal, may petition the Privy Council.

The same laws are administered in the district courts as in the supreme court, namely, the Dutch, or Roman law, with certain exceptions.

A prisoner can only be tried in the supreme court, upon the prosecution of the Queen's advocate; he has the right of challenge to the jury before whom he is to be arraigned; he is entitled on his trial to the assistance of an eminent proctor or barrister, *paid by the government* (an admirable provision), and the witnesses on both sides, in criminal cases before the supreme court, are also paid by the government.

POLICE.—Crimes, except in some of the maritime provinces, where the drinking of arrack leads to every species of vice, are in general rare, and the Singalese being in the aggregate a quiet, docile people, petty

litigation (owing to the extended division of property) usurps the place of passion and its attendant results. Owing to the peculiar constitution of the village communities, each of which has its 'headman' and subordinate officers and peons or constables, the commission of an offence is speedily followed by detection. Among the principal offences are ear and nose slitting, and the mutilation of the limbs, for the purpose of carrying off the gold and precious stones with which women and children are adorned. Violent murders are more rare than poisonings, the latter mode of revenge being more suited to a timid people. In the Kandyan provinces crime is very unfrequent, and the village police excellent.

Military.—The regular armed force maintained in the island consists at present of four Queen's regiments of infantry (the head-quarters of which are stationed at Colombo, Kandy, and Trincomalee), two companies of the Royal Foot Artillery, a mounted body-guard for the Governor, and the 1st Ceylon regiment, composed principally of Malays, nearly 2000 strong, and one of the finest regiments in Her Majesty's service. I have never seen any native troops on the continent of India to equal the 1st Ceylon light infantry, either in appearance or manœuvring, and their conduct during the Kandyan war proved them to be inferior to no light infantry in the world. Their dress is dark green, and their arms a compact rifle, with short strong sword attachable instead of a bayonet. They are native officered, as in the East India Company's sepoy regiments, with European officers to each of the sixteen companies, and their fidelity to their leaders

has been evinced in every possible manner whenever an opportunity presented itself. I have seen many regiments of different nations under arms, but none ever offered to my view such a striking *coup d'œil* as Her Majesty's 1st Ceylon rifle regiment.

Return of the Numbers and Distributions of the Effective Force, Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers, and Rank and File of the British Army, including Colonial Corps, in each year since 1815, including Artillery and Engineers.

Year.	Officers present, or on Detached Duty at the Stations.											Sergeants.	Drummers.	Rank and File.	Boys attached to the Ceylon Corps.
	Colonels.	Lieut.-Colonels.	Majors.	Captains.	Lieutenants.	Ensigns.	Paymasters.	Adjutants.	Quarter-Masters.	Surgeons.	Assist. Surgeons.				
25th Jan. 1816	1	5	6	41	59	37	5	5	5	4	9	445	121	6169	...
1817	1	5	9	46	75	49	4	5	5	5	9	442	123	6103	167
1818	2	4	6	44	85	48	4	5	5	4	9	394	122	5943	158
1819	1	7	9	58	114	34	4	4	3	4	20	654	182	8219*	191
1820	...	5	6	41	66	29	4	5	5	3	6	425	118	3330	207
1821	...	6	7	46	68	40	6	6	6	4	6	363	136	6679	197
1822	...	7	6	35	55	29	5	5	4	5	4	333	113	6387	208
1823	...	5	6	27	40	26	1	2	3	3	4	270	85	5423	154
1824	...	...	7	35	40	25	2	2	3	3	4	268	80	5196	145
1825	...	3	6	34	37	21	2	4	3	4	3	268	80	4886	201
1826	...	4	6	37	40	21	4	3	4	4	2	281	73	4990	219
1827	...	7	4	41	60	17	5	5	4	3	6	308	83	5205	261
1828	...	7	4	39	64	20	4	5	4	3	7	304	83	5351	289
1829	...	8	5	45	63	30	4	5	5	4	6	304	82	5587	271
1830	...	7	6	41	61	30	4	5	5	5	6	305	80	5461	261
1831	...	7	7	42	60	29	5	5	5	6	7	306	81	5465	251
1st Jan. 1832	...	7	6	41	57	25	4	5	5	4	6	304	81	5196	253
1833	...	7	6	39	62	26	4	5	5	4	6	277	81	4822	246

N.B. Ceylon Light Dragoons, and Gun and Pioneer Lascars are included in the above numbers, but which are not borne on the Army Estimates.

* Including a Force detached from Bengal.

Scale of Island allowances paid by the Colony.

Regimental.—Colonel, 45*l.* 9*s.* per month; Lieutenant Colonel, 32*l.* 2*s.*; Major, 23*l.* 19*s.*; Captain, 13*l.* 16*s.*; Lieutenant, 8*l.* 5*s.*: Second Lieutenant or Ensign, 6*l.* 6*s.*; Paymaster, 13*l.* 16*s.*; Surgeon, 17*l.* 10*s.*; Assistant Surgeon, 12*l.* 10*s.*; Adjutant, 10*l.* 4*s.*; Quarter Master, 8*l.* 5*s.*

Additional allowances to officers in command of corps.—Colonel, 5*l.* 4*s.* per month; Lieutenant Colonel, 5*l.* 4*s.*; Major, 8*l.* 3*s.*; Captain, 10*l.* 4*s.*; Lieutenant, 5*l.* 11*s.*

Additional allowances to officers in command of garrisons, with the exception of Colombo, Trincomalee, Kandy, and Galle.—Colonel, 29*l.* 11*s.*; Lieutenant Colonel, 8*l.* 18*s.*; Major, 6*l.* 14*s.*; Captain, 3*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.*; Lieutenant, 2*l.* 14*s.*; Ensign, 2*l.* 6*d.*

The allowance for the commandants of Kandy and Trincomalee is fixed at 37*l.* 10*s.* each; of Colombo at 29*l.* 11*s.*; and of Galle at 10*s.* a day.

General and Medical Staff.—Medical General on the staff, 275*l.* 18*s.* 4½*d.*; Deputy Quarter-Master-General, being Lieutenant-Colonel, 16*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*; Assistant Quarter-Master-General, Major, 11*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.*; Deputy Assistant Quarter-Master-General, Lieutenant, 4*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*; Deputy Adjutant-General, Lieutenant-Colonel, 16*l.* 18*s.*; Deputy Assistant Adjutant-General, Captain, 6*l.* 18*s.*; Assistant Military Secretary, ditto, 6*l.* 18*s.*

In addition to regimental allowance being regulated where the ranks of staff officers do not correspond with the table, by

making the addition equal to one-half of the regimental allowances to officers.

To aid-de-camp, if subaltern, the staff and island allowance of a captain are granted; being the difference of island allowance between a surgeon and an assistant-surgeon.

The general as well as military reader will be gratified by the following account of military allowances, expenses, amusements, and annoyances, as detailed in a letter from Ceylon, dated July, 1833:—

"The barracks in Colombo fort are small detached ones, not holding more than a company, built by the Dutch so immediately under the ramparts as to exclude the breeze which is so necessary in this climate. The mortality occasioned last year by the cholera has attracted the attention of government to the accommodation of the troops, and measures are now in progress that will add considerably to their comforts. The hospital is not good, the wards are not sufficient to allow a classification of the diseases, and there is not a proper place for convalescents. The officers hire houses in the fort; they seldom contain more than four rooms, with accommodation for servants. Bath and stabling, and very good quarters, may be got for 2*l.* 5*s.* per month, in some situations for 1*l.* 10*s.*; in the principal street, where the houses are very superior, 3*l.* 15*s*, to 6*l.* is paid. Officers find their own furniture, but that is of little importance where all the articles for comfort or luxury are to be bought on terms that would astonish a London upholsterer. Six arm-chairs, with rattanned seats, cost about 2*l.* 5*s.*; a pair of couches, 2*l.*;

tables, varying from 10*s*. upwards, but a good one to dine four, may be purchased for that price; they are all made of jack wood, which is handsome, and takes a high polish. No European servants are allowed, two natives are sufficient for a bachelor,—a head servant at 1*l*. per month, a boy at 9*s*.; if you keep a horse, a servant to attend him, and accompany his master on foot when he goes out, will cost 15*s*. a month. They support and clothe themselves. To meet these extra expenses the island allowance monthly is, for lieutenant-colonel, 32*l*.; a major, 23*l*.; a captain, 13*l*. 16*s*.; a lieutenant, 8*l*. 5*s*.; an ensign, 6*l*.; a surgeon, 17*l*.; assistant-surgeon, 10*l*.; quarter-master and adjutant, 10*l*.; 5*l*. extra is allowed for the commandants of corps. This is to cover all expenses of house rent, servants, fuel, candles, and marching money. The allowance of the subs should be 10*l*., to enable them to meet the extra expenses they are put to by those who are paid more liberally. Messing is about 2*s*. a day, but 6*d*. more may be added for contingent expenses. The dinners, particularly in Colombo, are good;—every variety of poultry, excellent fish, venison, and game, are to be bought reasonable. Madeira and light French claret are the usual wines, and are drunk at 3*s*. a bottle. Sherry is getting much in vogue, but many of the messes on stranger-days sport champagne, hock, and Carbonnel's or Sneyd's best claret, to the great detriment of the finances of the junior members. The duty in Colombo is a subaltern's guard. The captains assist the field

officers in doing the garrison duty. There is a garrison field-day every Monday morning, and regimental parades once a day. The society of Colombo is composed of the families of the military and the gentlemen holding the civil situations under government. It is sociable and agreeable; there are numerous private parties, and a public ball once a month; the messes frequently invite their friends to evening parties. The style of living is good, and combines more both of comfort and luxury than is usually found in the same class of society in Europe.

"There is a subscription library, supplied with a large assortment of newspapers and every publication of interest, and standard works. Each regiment (Colombo is the head-quarters of two European regiments) has its own billiard-table; it is very rare indeed to hear of high play at them: they are a source of amusement in a place where the heat will not admit of exposure during the day, and, as it is unattended with expense, has not been productive of evil consequences."

Revenue.—The gross aggregate revenue of Ceylon has for some years averaged somewhat more than 330,000*l.* per annum, but from the great expenses attending the realization of some of the principal branches of revenue, and from the changes which are now taking place (the cinnamon monopoly, for instance, being abolished) it is difficult to state the net or even precise revenue of the last year; it may be averaged, however, at five shillings a head per annum.

The following Items formed the Revenue of Ceylon for 1832.

Land Rents	£21,300
Cinnamon	147,549
Salt	24,653
Pearl Fishing	3,887
Fish Rents	6,986
Licences	29,179
Sea Customs	65,176
Land ditto	4,176
Lands and Houses	195
Steam-engine	1,127
Stamps	2,729
Judicial Receipts	10,461
Fines and Forfeitures	979
Commutation Tax	3,008
Premium on Bills	3,976
Post Offices	1,549
Stud of Horses' Sale	508
Auction Duty	215
Interest of various Monies	2,740
Tribute from Wedderate	104
Sale of Government Gazette	437
Sundries	1,000
Receipts in aid of Revenue	25,234
Arrears of Revenue in former Years	12,346
Making an aggregate income of	370,000

The land assessment is trifling as regards the receipts of treasury, and collected under a bad system, namely in kind, and by speculators who farm it out from the government. The grain, when collected by government, is stored for the use of the troops and for sale. Every attempt at a permanent settlement on the land has hitherto failed, and owing to the quantity of waste land, and that held only by

service tenure, the difficulties in the way of such a desirable measure have hitherto been found impracticable.

In the land-rents are included the duties levied on cocoa-nut trees, and it affords a singular view of the importance of that palm to the people, when we find that while the tax on rice lands does not yield a larger revenue than 21,000*l.*, the revenue derived from the cocoa-nut tree amounts to 35,573*l.*[1]

The premium upon bills drawn by the colonial government upon its agent in London, amounting to 4800*l.* a-year, is included in the colonial receipts, though it can scarcely be considered a source of revenue. As the whole of the revenue system of Ceylon is now under the consideration and modification of the government, it would be unnecessary to particularize further.

EXPENDITURE.—From the time of our acquisition of this island, its revenue has been inadequate to meet the expenditure, whether wisely or unnecessarily incurred. Certainly much of the expenditure arose from causes which now cease to operate, namely, internal war with the Kandyans, and in consequence of hostilities in Europe or British India; even at this moment a larger military force is kept up at Ceylon than is required for the mere protection of the island,

[1] Schedule of duties levied on cocoa-nut plantations:—

Distilling of arrack	£3,644	Exports of jaghery	£162
Retail of ditto .	24,975	Ditto of copperas	1,539
Export of ditto .	3,136	Ditto of cocoa nuts	1,551
Ditto of coira or rope	153	Ditto of cocoa-nut oil	413

in consequence of its being the Malta or Gibraltar of our eastern possessions. The following abstract was laid before the Finance Committee of Parliament in 1828[1]:—

[1] I found the following statement among the Marquess Wellesley's papers:—

Receipts in Ceylon.	Pagodas.	*Charges in Ceylon.*	Pagodas.
1796-7	304,152	1796-7	9,323
1797-8 about....	368,708		42,394
	170,000	1797-8	78,799
	842,860		130,516

	Pagodas.
1795-6	about 9,000
Add amount of receipts	842,860
	851,860
Deduct charges	130,516
Remains	721,344

Exclusive of the receipts for the pearl fishery since 30th April, 1798.

The amount of the pearl fishery, since 30th April, 1798, though not stated in the above extract of the account in general, received from Mr. Webbe, has yielded to the Madras treasury, according to the best information I could obtain, the sum of 150,000 pagodas; therefore,

	Pagodas.
The amount of the pearl fishery, since 30th April, 1798	150,000
Added to the balance in favour of Ceylon, as above	721,344
Makes..............	871,344

As the above extract does not specify the particular charges, it is probable that the greater part of the military disbursements constitute no part of the charges.

Net Revenue and Expenditure of Ceylon for Fourteen Years.

Years.	Net Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Expenditure.
	£	£	£
1811	301758	411249	109491
1812	271210	370301	99091
1813	320806	491776	170070
1814	352416	409369	56953
1815	376757	511434	134677
1816	344846	450502	105656
1817	340020	416491	76471
1818	359595	454496	94901
1819	342375	478940	136565
1820	404123	476054	71931
1821	370497	410126	39629
1822	313142	369038	55896
1823	286862	404480	117618
1824	297945	393548	95603
	4652352	6047804	1362552

We perceive from the foregoing, that notwithstanding the heavy expenses incurred by the Kandyan war, and the necessity for occupying a large extent of the interior, which for several years could not be expected to meet the charges requisite for its maintenance and peace, yet the excess of expenditure in the latter years had considerably diminished; but a more agreeable prospect of the finances of the colony is presented to us in the Ceylon Almanac for 1834, which gives the revenue and expenditure from 1821 to 1832 thus—

Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Revenue.	Excess of Expenditure.
	£	£	£	£
1821	459699	481854	—	22155
1822	473669	458346	15328	—
1823	355406	476242	—	120836
1824	387259	441592	—	54333
1825	355320	495529	—	140209
1826	278358	394229	—	115879
1827	264785	411648	—	146913
1828	305712	339516	—	38894
1829	389534	344757	44777	—
1830	403475	347029	56446	—
1831	420170	356565	73605	—
1832	369437	338100	31337	—
Total	4362824	4885407	221493	639219

Under a recent revision of the government offices and retrenchment, the following scale of salaries has been established:—

Civil Offices, of the yearly Value of 300*l. and above.* —Governor, 7000*l.*; Colonial Secretary, 2000*l.*; Assistant ditto, and Clerk to the Executive and Legislative Councils, 600*l.*; Treasurer and Commissioner of Stamps, 1500*l.*; Auditor General and Comptroller of Revenue, 1500*l.*; Civil Engineer and Surveyor General, 800*l.*; Postmaster General, 300*l.*; Harbour Master at Colombo, 700*l.*; ditto Galle, 500*l.*; Collector of Customs, 1000*l.*; Government Agent at Colombo, 1200*l.*; Assistant ditto at ditto, 300*l.*; ditto ditto at Caltura, 400*l.*; Government Agent at Galle, 1000*l.*: Assistant to ditto at Matura, 400*l.*; ditto at Batticaloa, 400*l.*; Government Agent at Trincomalee, 1000*l.*; ditto at Jaffna, 1200*l.*; As-

sistant ditto at ditto, 300*l.*; ditto at Manaar, 400*l.*; ditto at Chilaw, 400*l.*; Government Agent at Kandy, 1200*l.*; Assistant ditto at Kurunegalle, 400*l.*; ditto at Ratnapoora, 400*l.*;—24,900*l.* Being an average decrease of 2233 per cent. upon the existing establishments, and 3887 per cent. including the offices established.

Civil Offices of the yearly Value of 500*l. and under, per annum.*—Superintendant General of Vaccination, 450*l.*; Five Assistants at 90*l.* each, 450*l.*; Harbour Master of Trincomalee, 400*l.*; Assistant Engineer and Surveyor, 300*l.*; Superintendant of the Botanical Gardens, 250*l.*; Supervisor of the Pearl Banks, 500*l.*; Assistant Agent at Badulla, 400*l.*; ditto Alipoot, 400*l.*; ditto Ruanwelle, 400*l.*; ditto Matelle, 400*l.*; ditto Fort King, 400*l.*; ditto Madawalatenne, 400*l.*;—4750. Being an average increase of 1463 per cent. exclusive of the six last mentioned officers.

Judicial Offices of the yearly Value of 500*l. and above.*—Chief Justice, 2500*l.*; Senior Puisne ditto, 1500*l.*; Queen's Advocate, 1200*l.*; Deputy ditto, 1000*l.*; Registrar of the Supreme Court, 600*l.*; District Judge of Colombo, 1000*l.*; ditto Galle, 1000*l.*; ditto Trincomalee, 1000*l.*; ditto Jaffna, 1000*l.*; ditto Chilaw and Putlam, 500*l.*; ditto Kandy, 1000*l.*; ditto Ratnapoora, 150*l.*;—total, 12,450*l.* Being an average decrease of 2966 per cent.

Judicial Offices under 500*l. per annum.*—Fiscal of the Western Province, 350*l.*; Private Secretary to the Chief Justice, 270*l.*; ditto Senior Puisne ditto, 180*l.*; District Judge of Batticaloa, 250*l.*; ditto

Manaar, 200*l.*; Sitting Magistrates of Caltura, 135*l.*; ditto Pantura, 225*l.*; ditto Negombo, 225*l.*; ditto Amblangodde, 225*l.*; ditto Matura, 225*l.*; ditto Hambantotte, 135*l.*; ditto Mulletivoe, 225*l.*; ditto Point Pedro, 157*l.*; ditto Mallagam, 225*l.*; ditto Kaits, 157*l.*; ditto Chavagacherry, 225*l.*; ditto Kurnegalle, 150*l.*; ditto Badulla, 150*l.*; ditto Alipoot, 150*l.*; ditto Ruanwelle, 150*l.*; ditto Matele, 150*l.*; Fort King, 150*l.*; Nuwera Ellia, 150*l.*;—4460. Being an increase of 2676 per cent. exclusive of the seven last-mentioned offices.

Offices newly created.—*Civil.*—Assistant Agent at Negombo, 400*l.*; ditto at Galle, 300*l.*; ditto at Hambantotte; 400*l.*; ditto at Kandy, 300*l.*

Judicial.—Second Puisne Justice, 1500*l.*; Private Secretary to ditto, 180*l.*; District Judge of Nuwera Ellia, 150*l.*

Ecclesiastical.—College Professor (deferred), 300*l.* Total, 3530*l.*

These salaries are not high, compared with those of the other functionaries of the island, nor in reference to the tropical nature of the climate, and the necessity of paying dignitaries vested with high authority salaries placing them above the reach of temptation; for no policy can be more short-sighted than inadequately remunerating the servants of the state. When the Dutch had Ceylon, for instance, the salaries of their officers, from the governor downwards, were not one-fifth of our servants, but amends were made by the former plundering the people in every possible shape, and by the institution of trading monopolies in the hands of government, from the

melancholy effects of which the island is still suffering. By an important document presented to Parliament near the close of the last session, showing a reduction in colonial expenditure, prospective and immediate, Ceylon is thus therein noted down :—Charge when reduction commenced, 190,570*l.*; immediate saving, 30,732*l.*; prospective saving, 27,378*l.*; total retrenchment, 58,110*l.*

There is a civil pension fund in Ceylon, by the rules of which the subscribers are entitled to pensions after twelve years actual service and subscription; the amount of pension being regulated according to the salary received by the officer during the last two years previous to his retirement. The pensions now paid by the fund amount to 12,000*l.* a-year. It would be well if Great Britain had a similar institution or institutions for the different departments of the service, by which the future dead weight of the expenditure would be materially relieved, and it would be most desirable that every colony had a pension fund formed after the plan of Ceylon.

Education.—According to Baldæus, when the Dutch obtained possession of this island, they pursued the plan of enlightening its inhabitants by education, as a means of christianizing the natives. The following most interesting statement of the churches and schools established in Jafnapatam and Manaar in Ceylon, is given by Baldæus, in his account of Malabar and Ceylon, printed at Amsterdam, in 1672:—

Jelipole, August, 1658, church established.

January 12th, 1661, sacrament first administered to twelve communicants of the natives.

1665. 1,000 scholars, 2,000 auditors; Mallagam, 200 scholars, 600 auditors; Mayletti, 750 scholars, 1,600 auditors; Achiavelli, 500 scholars, 2,000 auditors; Oudewill, 600 scholars, 1,000 auditors; Batecotte, 900 scholars, 2,000 auditors; Paneteripore, 600 scholars, 1,300 auditors; Changane, 700 scholars, church filled; Manipay, 560 scholars, 700 auditors; Yanarpone, 200 scholars, 600 auditors; Nalour, 590 scholars (the people here still incline to Paganism); Sundecouli, 450 scholars, 400 auditors.

Thus far of the Province Belligame and its churches, unto which belong Copay and Pontour, containing about 800 scholars and 2,000 souls.

The second Province of Jafnapatam is Tenmarache, containing five churches and the villages thereto belonging:—

1st, Navacouli, 400 scholars, 800 auditors; Chavagatzery, 1,000 scholars, 2,500 auditors; Cathay, 550 scholars, 1,200 auditors; Haranni, 800 scholars, 2,500 auditors; Illondi Matual, 650 scholars, 1,200 auditors.

The third province is called Waddemarache, having three churches:—

1st, Catavelli, 600 scholars, 1,205 auditors; Ureputti, 690 scholars; 900 auditors; Paretilure, 1,000 scholars, 3,000 auditors.

The last and furthermost Province called Palchiarapalle has four churches and as many schools:—

1st, Poelepolay, 300 scholars, 600 auditors; Mo-

gommale, 450 scholars, 500 auditors; Jambamme, 500 scholars, 900 auditors; Mulipatto, 215 scholars, 350 auditors.

Several of these schools continue; others have been discontinued, or have merged in similar establishments formed in their neighbourhood.

The government schools are in number about 100, of which the far greater part are in the Singalese or maritime districts; they were originally established by the Dutch, and, according to Colonel Colebrooke's report, the numbers educated have been as follows:—

Protestants	83756	Mahomedans	14847
Roman Catholics	38155	Boodhists	78602
Total	121911	Total	93449

The expenditure amounts to about 3600*l.* per annum; and it is to be hoped it will be extended to the Malabar and Kandyan districts. The schoolmasters receive a small stipend of 6*l.* 6*s.* per annum, and they derive further emolument from fees received for registering native marriages, a duty which the government are very properly careful in attending to.

The following return for 1831 gives the statistics of the state of education, of the churches, chapels, and gaols in Ceylon.

Year	EDUCATION. Number of Schools.	Public or Free Schools. Scholars. Male.	Scholars. Female.	Scholars. Total.	CHURCHES AND CHAPELS. Expense of Schools.	Number of Places of Worship.	Number of Persons they are capable of containing.	Number of Persons who usually attend.	Expense of the Establishment.
1831	355	12971	1728	14699	£. 3686	369	118800	63923	£. 8548

GAOLS.

Number of Prisons.	No. of Prisoners they are capable of containing.	Number of Persons confined for Debt. Male.	Debt. Fem.	Number confined for Misdemeanours. Male.	Misdemeanours. Fem.	Number confined for Felonies. Male.	Felonies. Fem.	Total Number of Criminals. Male.	Criminals. Fem.	Total Number of Prisoners. Male.	Prisoners. Fem.	No. of Prisoners kept at Hard Labour.	No. of Prisoners unimployed.	Cases of Sickness during the Year.	No. of Deaths in the Year.
17	1763	69	2	230	38	639	16	869	54	1079	56	880	235	2885	14

A more detailed account of the present state and progress of education is afforded by the following tabular view of schools in 1831, separated into stations and establishments, &c. The number of missionary institutions (among which those of the American missionaries are highly deserving commendation) will be examined with much gratification. I cannot omit any opportunity of earnestly entreating all who have the welfare of their fellow creatures at heart, to support the efforts of Missionaries in our colonies; those only who like myself have witnessed their enthusiastic devotion to the ennobling pursuits which occupy their whole lives, can adequately appreciate the value of their labours. In Ceylon, education and improved habits of society will be, I trust, the prelude to the permanent establishment of Christianity. Let every thing be done in due order, not too rapidly hastening on the good work; but let the soil be cleared of weeds; the ground well ploughed and harrowed, good seed sown, and providence will complete all.

Return of the Number of Schools in Ceylon in 1831.

Districts.	Divisions.	No. of Government Schools.	No. of Missionary Schools. Church Mission.	Wesleyan.	American.	Baptist.	Private Schools.	Total Number.	Of the foregoing under Roman Catholic Clergy.*	R. C. Missionaries.
Colombo	4 Gravets of Colombo	7								2
	Aloetkoer Korle	10								1
	Salpitte Korle	7								
	Hina Korle	5								1
	Hapitigam Korle	1	13	35	...	16	419	537	36	1
	Hewagam Korle	5								
	Raygam Korle	9								1
	Pasdaem Korle	7								
	Walalawitty Korle	3								1
Pt. de Galle	4 Gravets of Galle	2								
	Walalawitty Korle	4								
	Gangebodde Pattoo	4	14	10	...	...	3	47	1	1
	Talpe Pattoo	5								1
	Wellabodde Pattoo	5								
Matura	4 Gravets of Matura	2								
	Belligam Korle	7								
	Moruwa Korle	1	...	12	...	...	...	31	...	1
	Girreway Pattoo	4								
	Gangebodde Pattoo	5								
	Batticaloa	1	...	4	...	...	2	7	...	1
	Trincomalee	2	...	6	...	...	4	12	2	1
	Jaffna	1	19	12	100	...	138	270	20	1
	Manar	...	...	1	...	...	28	29	3	1
Chilaw	Chilaw	1	...	...	...	...	56	58	1	1
	Calpentyn	1								
	Delft	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	...	1
	Total	99	46	80	100	16	649	1039	63	
Kandyan Provinces	Kandy, &c.	...	10	...	...	...	...	10	...	1
	Kornegalle, &c.	...	...	6	...	...	...	6	...	
	Grand Total	99	56	86	100	16	649	1055	...	17

* Included in the Private Schools.

Church Mission.—Schools established in 1818, and occupying four stations, has schools 53, containing 1554 boys, 254 girls, and 61 adults; total, 1869. Employs 83 native teachers and assistants, and has printing and bookbinding establishments at Cotta and Nellore. The number of boys in the Cotta institution is 16, of whom 11 are Singalese, and 5 Tamulians.

Wesleyan Mission, established in 1814, and occupying 7 seven stations, has 65 schools in Singalese, or southern, and 21 in Tamul, or northern districts, thus:—

SINGALESE.					TAMULIANS.		
	Schools.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.		Schools.	Scholars.
Colombo	7	384	29	413	Jaffna	6	238
Negombo	12	376	83	459	Point Pedro	5	401
Seven Korles......	6	152	4	156	Trincomalee	4	110
Caltura	16	806	111	917	Batticaloa	6	189
Gallee	11	514	124	638			
Matura	13	548	35	583	Total	21	938
Morawa	1	30	...	30			
Total	65	2810	386	3196			

The return for 1832 shows, in the South Ceylon district, an aggregate of 69 schools, with 2896 boys, 427 girls, and 104 male and female teachers; in addition to which, the Wesleyans employ 15 salaried catechists, who assist in the superintendence of the schools, and conduct public worship on the Sabbath days. The mission has had a printing establishment and two presses at Colombo since its formation.

American Mission has five stations and a high

school or college at Batticaloa, containing 10 students in Christian theology, and 110 students in English and the elements of sciences, and 22 in Tamul, all on the charity foundation, besides six day scholars. A female central school at Oodooville, with 52 girls on the foundation, and 76 native free schools, with 2200 boys and 400 girls.

Baptist Mission, instituted in 1812, has two stations and 16 schools, containing about 800 children, instructed in English, Portuguese, Tamul, and Singalese, by 20 teachers: four are female schools; the annual expense of this mission (160*l.* per annum) is almost exclusively borne by the parent society in England.

Roman Catholic Mission, established in 1687, occupies 12 stations, presided over by 12 pastors. Of its schools or progress I could learn no information, either in Ceylon or in England.

The Press.—Little can yet be said on this important subject; until lately there was only a government gazette in the island; recently, however, a Colombo Observer has been added, and I trust it is but a prelude to extended intelligence and public spirit.

Commerce.—The trade, internal and maritime, of this rich and beautiful island, has been materially checked by the pernicious system of government monopolies, introduced originally by the Dutch governors, to enable them to make up the deficient salaries allotted them by the home government; that system is now, however, in the course of total abolition; and Ceylon will doubtless again resume that position among the commercial emporiums of the east, for

which nature seems so admirably to have fitted her. There are no documents at the London Custom House to show the extent and value of the trade of this island, as given in my other volumes. The greater part of the following returns I obtained in manuscript from the Colonial Office. I proceed, therefore, to show—1st, the shipping employed in the trade of Ceylon (it has no tonnage of its own worth mentioning); 2nd, value of the commerce carried on; and, 3rd, the nature and quantity of the staple exports of the island.

Shipping, Inwards and Outwards, of Ceylon

Years.	SHIPS INWARDS—FROM Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.		Total Inwards.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1825	7	2631	779	26316	9	2579	795	31526
1826	12	4609	1119	32765	53	5528	1264	42898
1827	6	2336	1552	57427	164	12009	1722	71772
1828	23	8756	1137	41682	154	9631	1314	60069
1829	13	4857	988	56826	156	8229	1157	69912
1830	11	3911	878	60157	169	12962	1058	77030
1831	7	2547	1044	48339	171	12847	1222	63833
1832	13	4603	1186	47911	212	13514	1411	66096

Years.	SHIPS OUTWARDS—TO Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.		Total Outwards.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1825	8	3002	1643	54668	10	2489	1661	60159
1826	9	3525	1096	33122	53	3176	1158	39823
1827	10	4182	1475	58756	47	3999	1532	66937
1828	9	3551	1048	41890	38	3185	1095	48626
1829	13	4869	1098	56936	36	2564	1147	64369
1830	11	3769	1176	63494	47	2624	1234	69887
1831	7	2429	1040	53149	28	2256	1075	57834
1832	14	4768	1259	66742	32	1807	1305	73317

Imports and Exports of Ceylon.

Years.	IMPORTS FROM			
	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total Imports.
	£	£	£	£
1825	23440	264499	3362	296301
1826	21262	250219	38266	309747
1827	16800	299974	26535	343309
1828	29984	269518	24431	323933
1829	39290	272654	28256	340200
1830	40777	274576	34228	349581
1831	28599	227150	27278	282988
1832	47792	263372	40058	351223
1833	60812	229932	30145	320891

Years	EXPORTS TO			
	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total Exports.
	£	£	£	£
1825	97537	122956	3895	224388
1826	177523	79408	6001	262922
1827	233452	82016	2225	317693
1828	149551	64189	1631	215371
1829	196558	88256	1330	286144
1830	168576	80675	1536	250787
1831	59903	60505	740	152293
1832	98526	54102	2839	156008
1833	42403	55100	2966	132529

Return of the quantities of Cinnamon, Cocoa-nut Oil, Coffee, Coir Rope, and Arrack, exported since 1827.

Years.	Cinnamon.	Cocoa-nut Oil.	Coffee.	Coir Rope.	Arrack.
	Bales.	Gallons.	cwts.	cwts.	Leaguers.
1827	45289	84588	16008	6775	3188
1828	48618	173420	7072	10064	4299
1829	25031	126491	20033	9198	4428
1830	15761	118511	16900	14520	4901
1831	80800	98803	23683	7804	
1832	82600	137721	38127	12695	
1833	77530	112671		4928	3256

Return of the Quantity of Grain, and estimated Value of Cloth, imported since 1825, distinguishing the Cloth from the Coast and from Great Britain.

Years.	Grain in Quantities.				Cloth in Value.	
	Rice.	Paddy.	Wheat.	Gram, and sundry dry Grains.	From the Coast.	From Great Britain.
	Parrahs.	Parrahs.	Parrahs.	Parrahs.	£	£
1825	532421	714396	12680	11881	75953	4027
1826	592244	696109	30620	9965	106163	3207
1827	763179	703246	13531	13628	164405	562
1828	492712	535844	19416	10145	143096	4656
1829	501915	673303	35203	10592	133283	5409
1830	667295	940404	25423	10588	117911	5948
1831	729409	785072	27819	13332	96626	5226
1832	803767	958312	33255	8805	97055	13520
1833	775593	438617	34879	10108	62619	12575

Weights and Measures.—The Singalese, or dry measure is 4 cut chundroons = 1 cut measure or seer; $\frac{4}{5}$ = 1 coornie; $2\frac{1}{12}$ = 1 marcal; 2 = 1 parrah; 8 = 1 amuconam; $9\frac{3}{8}$ = 1 last.

The internal measure of a standard parrah is a perfect cube of 11.57.100 inches: the seer is a per-

fect cylinder—depth 4.35 inches, diameter 4.35 inches; the weight of the parrah measure, according to the custom-house account is, for coffee, from 50 to 35 lbs.; pepper, 27 to 30 lbs.; salt 52 to 55 lbs.; paddy (unhusked rice) 30 to 33 lbs.; rice 42 to 46 lbs.: the candy or bahar = 500 lbs. avoirdupois, or 461 lbs. Dutch troy weight.

Kandian Measure of Surface.—8 lahas = 1 coornie ($10\frac{15}{16}$ square perches) 10 = 1 peyla (2 square roods, $29\frac{5}{8}$ square perches) 4 = 1 ammonam (2 acres, 2 square roods, $37\frac{1}{2}$ square perches). But although the average extent of 1 ammonam is found to be 2 acres, 2 roods, and 2 perches; the measurement of land is not calculated from the specific area, but from the quantity of seed required to be sown on it, and consequently according to its fertility.

Weights of ounces, pounds, &c. are used also throughout the island, British standard. The bale of cinnamon consists of nearly $92\frac{1}{2}$ lbs.

Liquid Measure.—Gallons and their multiples and sub-multiples: 150 gallon = 1 leaguer or legger.

Monetary System.—The circulation of late is pounds, shillings, and pence, as in England, and accounts are becoming more generally kept in the same: the rixdollar is equal to 1*s.* 6*d.*—it is divided into 12 fanams (a thick copper coin) and each fanam into 4 pice. There is a government bank at Colombo, but I can obtain no returns of its circulation or deposits; notes are issued by government, but no annual returns are published of the amount, nor is there any information within the reach of the Colonial

Office in Downing Street, as to the real state of the paper and metallic circulation in the island. It is proposed to establish a private bank at Colombo, of which indeed the island stands much in need; saving banks are now in full operation.

It may readily be imagined how valuable the trade of this island may become under a freedom from restriction within, and justice in England on its products. At present, its most valuable articles, sugar, coffee, tobacco, pepper, &c. labour under the same disadvantages in the English markets as those of India. The Cingalese might make cotton cloth enough for their own consumption, but our present system of colonial legislation compels them to receive the steam wrought manufactures of Manchester and Glasgow at five per cent. *ad valorem* duty. While we put a duty on their sugar, when imported into England of *one hundred and fifty per cent.* On their coffee, *three hundred* per cent. On their pepper, *four hundred* per cent. On their arrack *one thousand* (!) &c. &c. Is this justice?

In fine, this rich and beautiful isle of spices—so thinly populated yet so capable of supporting twenty times its present population,—so impoverished yet so bountifully blessed by nature with every thing which can conduce to the happiness of man,—so admirably situate at the extremity of the Asiatic Peninsula, from which it is separated yet connected,—and so well adapted as an entrepôt for eastern commerce, requires only to be seen to be appreciated. I have visited every quarter of the globe—but have seen no place so lovely—romantic—so admirably situate—whether as regards the poet, the painter, the mer-

chant, or the statesman, as Ceylon ;— that its intrinsic worth may be appreciated in England is the author's fondest wish, not less on account of the fascinating spot to which these remarks have reference, than for the sake of England herself. A time will come (may the day be distant) when Great Britain will cease to hold her empire on the continent of India [1], and when the nations of Europe will contend for maritime superiority in the east ;—we have before us the examples of the Portugese and Dutch,—they neglected Ceylon ; the one made it the cradle of idolatrous superstitions, the other the temple of trading cupidity. We are now in the fair course to shun both extremes; our missionaries (the pioneers of civilization) are extending the beatitude of the gospel among the dark, benighted heathen,—our merchants, freeing themselves from the pernicious shackles of monopolies, are making peaceful Commerce, as she ought to be, the companion of Religion ; under both these influences Ceylon bids fair to be one of the most important colonies of the British empire. That to England may belong the glory of re-peopling, civilizing, and Christianizing this romantic isle, is earnestly hoped by one whose earliest travelling days were spent in exploring paths where no white man's foot before trod —and where the untutored savage and the destructive beast of the forest now dispute for pre-eminence.

[1] It is on this account that I deem the insular possessions of Britain of such great importance ; for instance, an extensive revolt throughout India, or its successful invasion by Russia, might annihilate our dominion on the continent, while our possession of Ceylon would remain unshaken, and thus enable us to preserve, at least, a portion of commerce. (*See my Colonial Policy.*)

BOOK II.

PENANG, OR PRINCE OF WALES' ISLAND.

CHAPTER I.

PENANG, MALACCA, AND SINCAPORE.

LOCALITY, AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, HISTORY, POPULATION, REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE, SOCIAL CONDITION, AND POLITICAL AND GENERAL ADVANTAGES, &c.

THIS picturesque island (so well adapted for a commercial entrepôt) is situate on the west coast of the Malayan peninsula, in latitude from 5° 15′ to 5° 29′ north, and longitude 100° east; its greatest length is sixteen statute miles from north to south, and its greatest breadth twelve miles at the north, and decreasing to eight miles at the south, thus forming an irregular four sided shape, with a range of lofty hills in the centre, the whole computed to contain 160

square miles. The valley of Penang[1], about three miles in breadth, is the level part of the island on its eastern side, extending from the hills to the sea, of a triangular shape, the ranges of mountains forming the base and the apex, called Tanjong, jutting into the harbour, and having George Town (the capital) and the Fort of Penang built on it, on which, for three miles in every direction from the point, private houses extend. Almost the whole of the northern shore is mountainous, and through the centre of the island runs a range of hills, decreasing in height and magnitude as they reach towards the south. On the west and south of the mountains there is a considerable quantity of level ground of good quality for every species of cultivation, as is now demonstrated by the general culture thereof. Indeed two-thirds of Penang is of level or gentle inclination. The east, owing to its moistness, is covered with rice fields; the south and west valleys, though partly cultivated for the same purpose, are chiefly laid out in pepper gardens and spice plantations. Every where close to the coast, as in Ceylon, runs an extensive belt of cocoanut trees, and scattered over the island in various groups appear groves of the graceful areca palm (or Penang) from which the isle takes its Malay name. The hills and low grounds, where not cultivated, are thickly covered with wood. Vegetation is splendidly luxuriant, and for miles and miles the eye rests on one dense mass of mountain forest. Besides George

[1] Penang is the Malay term for the areca or betel nut, which the Malays think the isle bears some resemblance to in shape.

Town (the capital) above alluded to, there is only one large collection of houses entitled James Town, situated on the sea shore, four miles to the south of the capital, amidst a grove of the lovely palm tribe. Numerous small villages and Malay topes are scattered over the island, especially on the south side, often beautifully and romantically situated on the coast or amidst spice groves in the vales.

The hill called the "Highlands of Scotland" is 1428 feet above the sea, and, like the other stations, the situation and climate of which are delightful. The whole of the valley is of alluvial formation, and it would appear that the sea once washed the base of the mountains; for on the opposite shore of Quedah, successive deposits of alluvial matter have been traced for several miles inland, indicating the gradual retirement of the ocean, by ridges being seen running parallel with the present line of coast[1].

A recent visitor thus describes his ideas on approaching Penang. "The island, with the exception of two plains of inconsiderable extent on the eastern and western shores, consists of one range of lofty hills, with towering peaks. The entrance to the harbour leading between the island and the Quedah coast, on which side the view is arrested by a noble chain of mountains, whose lofty summits terminate in a majestic outline, is picturesque and beautiful; the neat bungalows ranged round the bay, close to the water's edge, the fort projecting into the sea, the

[1] Many interesting details of this picturesque island have been printed by Dr. Ward of the Madras service, in the Singapore Chronicle of July, 1833.

town lining the beach, and the distant islands shutting the passage to the south, form a panoramic view of great interest."

The harbour of George Town, the capital, is capacious, with good anchorage, and well defended; it is formed by a strait about two miles wide, that separates Penang from the opposite Quedah coast on the Malayan peninsula, and the whole navy of Great Britain might find shelter therein. The sea is placid throughout the year, and the periodical effects of the monsoons little felt, the winds partaking more of the character of land and sea breezes.

When storms rage at sea the tides are affected by being irregular in their flow through the islands, sometimes running in one direction for several days with great rapidity, and then changing to another. The town is one of the neatest in India; the streets wide, straight, and at right angles; the buildings are respectable, and the Chinese shopkeepers (who are the principal tradesmen) lay out their "godowns" tastefully. The roads are among the finest in India, their beauty being enhanced by the strength and luxuriance of the vegetation, which continues the whole year round.

History.—When first known to Europeans, the island appeared quite untenanted, covered with forests, and considered as a part of the possessions of the King of Quedah on the contiguous coast. In 1785, Captain Light, the commander of a "country ship" in India, having married the King of Quedah's daughter, received a gift of the island as a marriage portion. Captain Light transferred it to the East India Com-

pany, who having entered into a treaty with his Quedah Majesty (which was to last as long as the sun and moon gave light!) agreed to pay 6000 dollars annually to the King, which in 1800 was raised to 10,000, in consideration of the Company receiving the Wellesley province on the main land opposite Penang, a territory extending thirty-five miles along the coast, four miles inland from the south bank of the Quaila Mudda to the north bank of the Krian River, latitude 5° 20′ north.

CLIMATE.—January and February are the dry and hot months, and November and December the rainy ones; but excepting the two former, the island is seldom a week without refreshing showers. The thermometer on Flag-staff Hill (2248 feet high) never rises beyond 78° Fah. (seldom to 74°), and falls to 66°; on the plain it ranges from 76° to 90°. The island is considered remarkably healthy. The climate of the high land of Penang resembles that of Funchal at Madeira, possessing the advantage of a very limited range of thermometer, the greatest range in twenty-four hours being 11°, and generally only three or four. The lightness and purity of the atmosphere elevate the spirits and render the step free and buoyant, while the splendid and varied scenery, the island itself with its hills and dales, the calm ocean around studded with verdant isles, and the opposite coast of Quedah with chains of mountains towering chain over chain, combined with the health-inspiring breezes, render a residence among the gardens of Penang of much value to the invalid.

Geology.—The mountains are entirely composed of fine gray granite, and the smaller hills are of the same material, excepting some hills near the coast formed of *laterite,* as is also Saddle Island, on the south-west angle of Penang. A tin mine was worked some years ago in the hills, and doubtless many valuable minerals exist in the mountains, which are probably equal in quality to those of the contiguous Malayan peninsula.

The soil is generally a light black mould mixed with gravel and clay, and in some parts there is a rich vegetable ground, formed by the decayed leaves of the forest, with which the island had for ages been covered : the coast soil is sandy but fertile.

Vegetable Kingdom.—The botany of the island is rich and varied. On the mountains grow the poon, bitanger, rangas, red poon, dammerlaut, wood oil tree, the cypress, and some superb species of arborescent ferns. The caoutchouc or elastic gum winds round all the trees in a spiral form. All the Malacca fruits, with the exception of the *duku,* grow in great abundance ; the sugar-cane and pepper-vine are extensively cultivated ; the quantity of pepper annually produced averages 2,025,000 lbs. avoirdupois ; cloves and nutmegs thrive well, the former cover the tops of the cleared summits, the latter are found in every part of the valley, one plantation alone occupying a space of several square miles ; coffee yields abundantly ; extensive fields of pine apples of delicious goût are found at the foot of the mountains ; the tea plant grows wild ; ginger, cinnamon, cotton, tobacco,

and in fact every intertropical production is capable of being brought to the highest state of perfection.

Zoology, &c.—The Malayan elk (*cervus equinus*) is found in the deep forests; the mouse and spotted deer are both very abundant; monkeys, the lemur volans, the wild cat, otter, and bat form the only indigenous animals, and the snakes, as in all tropical isles, are numerous; a species of boa (the *python* of Cuvier) eighteen to twenty feet long, is found in the hills. Beef, mutton, and pork are of excellent flavour, and a great variety of fish furnish the bazaar.

Population.—When the Company's establishment was formed at Penang, in 1786, the only inhabitants were a few miserable fishermen on the sea coast. In consequence of the disturbances in the Malayan principalities, and the encouragement given to settlers by the East India Company, a native population of various descriptions arose. The population of the settlement, according to all the returns before me, has been as follows, during the years—

1821	No. 38,057	1826	No. 55,116
1822	51,207	1827	57,986
1824	53,669	1828	60,551

The following official return[1] shows the motley population of Penang:—

[1] This table, as also many others in the volume now presented, have never before been printed, either by the East India Company or by Parliament; and I am indebted for them to the well known urbanity of the Court of Directors of the East India Company.

Census of the Population of Penang, or Prince of Wales's Island, Province Wellesley, and adjacent Isles, up to the 31st December, 1828.

	Districts.	Malays and Bugis.	Achimese.	Battas.	Chinese.	Chulias.	Bengalies.	Burmese and Siamese.	Arabs.	Armenians.	Parsees.	Native Christians.	Coffrees.	Total.
Penang.	George Town	3374	26	390	3987	3752	295	52	113	17	13	656	7	12682
	Teluk Ayer Raja	3525	164	173	1410	1368	843	665	7	2	...	645	39	8841
	Jelutang	2496	24	158	1556	727	210	72	29	...	...	23	18	5313
	Glugore	935	6	96	473	161	1	13	5	...	...	9	35	1734
	Sungei Kluang	2078	103	126	733	53	4	7	...	...	...	...	15	3119
	Western District	677	24	180	830	11	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1722
	Pulo Jeraja } Isles	112	...	7	...	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	122
	Pulo Reman } Isles	27	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	27
	Total	13224	347	1130	8989	6075	1353	809	154	19	13	1333	114	33560
Wellesley Province.	Qualla Muda	6605	...	...	155	55	154	256	...	...	...	...	...	7225
	Teluk Ayer Tewar	7683	4	16	164	76	368	42	4	...	...	...	...	8357
	Qualla Prye	3084	...	10	232	43	16	6	...	...	...	...	...	3396
	Juru	1548	...	17	82	...	6	4	...	...	...	...	...	1657
	Battua Kawan	1348	...	28	526	27	9	...	...	...	...	...	...	1958
	Total	33492	351	1201	10148	6276	1906	1117	158	19	13	1333	114	22593

European (40) and Native Military and Followers (1100), and convicts (1300) about	2500
Europeans, and their descendants, about	500
Itinerants of various classification	1000
General Total	60305

Between October, 1828, and December, 1829, the population had increased 3000. The number of mouths may now be calculated at upwards of 60,000.

Commerce.—The trade of Penang is carried on with Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, England, China, Java, Ceylon, Siam, Tenasserim coast, Acheen, Delhi, Quedah, and a few petty native ports. In Mr. Fullarton's elaborate paper on the trade of our eastern islands, printed in the East India papers in 1833 (II. Trade, part 2, Commercial, page 878,) it appears that the total value of imports into Penang were—

In 1828-9 . . .	S. rupees 52,23,872
Exports from ditto . . .	36,00,900
Excess .	16,22,972

The imports and exports of specie for the same year were—

Imports . . .	S. rupees 8,32,232
Exports	7,19,876
Excess .	1,12,356

The value of imports in sicca rupees from Calcutta was 10,94,986; from Madras, 16,95,850; Bombay, 2,65,290; England, 1,67,670; China, 2,18,440; Siam, 1,77,610; Tenasserim,. 1,77,010; Acheen, 8,08,513; Delhi (a petty state on the Sumatra shore), 2,04,905; and Quedah, 2,21,200; the exports value to the same places in succession were 3,57,126; 2,38,765; 2,30,146, 50,668; 9,65,834; 96,093; 1,55,152; 10,75,842; 1,58,930; and to Quedah, 1,35,930.

Of the imports, opium alone consists of upwards of seven lac of rupees; the other items are comprised of the various produce of the Straits, or of India and British goods, the trade being one of transit. Birds' nests for Chinese soups is one of the most important articles.

The value of Penang as a spice island is shown in the following statement, which appeared in the Singapore Chronicle of August 28, 1834 :—

Penang has been a spice island from the period nearly of its first settlement. Pepper engrossed the consideration of capitalists for many years, and until the price fell so low that the returns no more than repaid the outlay. But previous to this check another resource of gain opened by the introduction to the island of the nutmeg and clove tree.

In 1798 a few spice plants were imported from the Dutch spice islands; but in the year 1800 there were brought from Amboyna 5000 nutmeg and 15,000 clove plants. In 1802 a further and larger number arrived, the collection of the government agent, Mr. Hunter. This consisted of 25,026 seedling nutmeg trees, and 175 plants of ages varying from four to seven years.

Shortly before this last period a government spice garden had been established, embracing 130 acres of land, lying on the slopes which skirt the base of the hill near Amie's Mills, a romantic spot, and well watered by a running stream now called Ayer Putih. This plantation, in some respects a mere nursery, contained, in the above year, the number of 19,628 nutmeg plants, varying from one up to four years old, 3459 being four years of age. There were also 6259 clove trees, of which 669 were above six and under seven years old.

In the same year, 1802, Mr. Smith, the Honourable Company's botanist, reported that he had imported in all to the island at that date 71,266 nutmeg and 55,264 clove plants, out of which a few were reserved for the botanical gardens at Kew, Calcutta, and Madras. Most of the plantations now in a pro-

ductive state have been created by plants raised from nuts yielded by trees of the original importations, and a number of nutmeg trees which had been planted on the face of a hill and abandoned, were, after a lapse of about four years, rescued from thick jungle and found to be in a lively condition and in bearing. The wild nutmeg tree is indigenous to Penang, being an inhabitant of the hills. It is a tall forest tree, and bears a more oval shaped fruit than the true nutmeg tree. Both the nut and mace are less pungent and more astringent than the true spice, yet the Chuliahs have been in the habit of gathering them and selling them in the native bazaars.

There are several varieties of the cultivated nutmeg on Penang, distinguished from other by the tinge of the leaf and shape of the nut. In some the former is small and light in colour, in others dark and large. In one the nut is oval or egg-shaped, each nut hanging on a tendril of four or five inches in length; in another it resembles a small peach; and in a third it is small and nearly circular.

In 1805 there were only 23 bearing clove trees in the Company's gardens; and in October, 1834, these gardens were sold for the trifling sum of 9658 dollars. They contained then 5103 nutmeg trees, 1625 clove trees, and 1050 seedlings. The whole being sold in lots, many of the trees were dug up and transplanted to other quarters of the island, and thus dispersed; numbers were lost from mismanagement.

In 1810 the total number of nutmeg trees on the island was about 13,000, several hundreds of which only were in bearing, and from such clove trees as were then bearing a supply of 20,000 plants was obtained.

The sale of the government plantations gave a temporary stimulus to the private planter; yet the continued ignorance of the proper method of cultivating spices, necessarily followed by tardy crops, seems to have at length induced such an apathy regarding them, that they ran the risk of a speedy extinction.

The late David Brown, Esq. stood alone, in 1810, as a spice planter on an extensive scale, and instead of finding encouragement in the sympathy of those around him, he was incon-

siderately supposed by many to be in search of an El Dorado, and no one ventured to follow his steps. Bold and provident as was this attempt, its success was long retarded by the obstacles which always oppose themselves to agricultural innovaters, and it might, even after a very great outlay of capital, have been doubtful on the decease of that gentleman, had not his son, the late and lamented George Brown, Esq. managed the estate with a spirit and judgment which finally overcame every difficulty, and displayed for the first time after thirty years of perilous trial the full value of the pursuit.

In 1818, the bearing nutmeg trees on the island were estimated to be 6900. Since that period spices have been more extensively cultivated. There are now upwards of thirty spice plantations at this settlement, including Province Wellesley, and these may be classed as follow :—

Five plantations containing from 4000 up to 20,000 trees.

Eight from 500 up to 10,000 trees.

Seventeen from 50 up to 2000, containing in the aggregate about 80,000 trees, of which number 45,000 are estimated to be in bearing. When Bencoolen was ceded to the Dutch, the plantations there were estimated to contain 25,000 bearing trees only.

The gross annual produce from the plantations may be roughly estimated at 130,000 lbs., but young trees are yearly coming into bearing to swell this quantity; should the cultivation meet with no serious interruption, it may perhaps in time supply the whole of the English market with spices.

Revenue and Expenditure.—The appendix to the select report of the House of Lords, gives the following table of revenue and expenditure (exclusive of commercial charges) for nineteen years; it will be observed that Singapore and Malacca are included in the two last years; the reductions ordered in the Court of Directors' Dispatch, 7th April, 1829, will ere long enable Penang to meet its expenditure with its own revenues.

Years.	CHARGES.				Revenues and Customs.	Net Charge.	Expense of Military not included in the Charges but in the Bengal Accounts.
	Civil.	Military.	Buildings and Fortifications.	Total Charges.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1809-10	99494	15895	16428	131817	70372	61445	44509
1810-11	88299	16274	18447	123020	80440	42580	32822
1811-12	76974	13328	10815	101117	68557	32560	31212
1812-13	83630	16945	12740	113315	48891	64424	32414
1813-14	91091	16190	8478	115759	57075	58684	36604
1814-15	94503	16861	6347	117711	54316	63395	37385
1815-16	91399	19028	9257	119684*	53868	66660	33063
1816-17	86819	13451	9292	109562	54861	54701	28974
1817-18	72582	12659	15036	100277	56585	43692	34582
1818-19	66223	11073	4116	81412	57027	24385	27261
1819-20	66632	7728	2141	76501	49938	26563	33819
1820-21	71667	8235	1510	81412	52022	29390	25094
1821-22	68934	12754	4251	85939	41660	44279	23237
1822-23	72360	13389	3208	88957	44676	44881	24035
1823-24	81761	14478	2063	98302	35956	62346	24164
1824-25	98287	11835	3209	113331	38220	75111	24798
1825-26	113682	14543	7069	135294†	31422	104125	38375
1826-27	121168	23058	4991	§149217‡	§55744	94745	37230

* Interest on debts, £844. † Ditto £253. ‡ Ditto £1272.

§ The accounts of Sincapore and Malacca are included in these years; but for nine months only in the year 1826-27, and for the whole year in 1827-28.

The sale of opium is a monopoly in the hands of government, who derive a revenue from it of about 40,000 Spanish dollars a year; land, licences, and customs, are the remaining chief sources of revenue.

The government of Penang, Malacca, and Singapore, is subordinate to the presidency of Bengal, and the civil establishment recently fixed as follows:— Chief resident at Singapore, rupees 36,000; first assistant, 24,000; second ditto, 7,200; deputy resident at Malacca, 24,000; assistant, 7,200; deputy resident, Prince of Wales's Island, 30,000; assistant,

7,200; assistant, Province Wellesley (exclusively of military pay), 3,600; one surgeon, 9,600, and three assistant surgeons at 4,800, 14,400, 24,000; two chaplains at 8,500 each, and one missionary 2,500, 20,000; office establishment, 12,000. Total sicca rupees 1,95,200.

As a commercial and maritime station Penang has many advantages; it serves as an entrepôt for the various produce of China, the eastern islands and straits, the native merchants from which take back in return British and India goods. It was at one time contemplated to form an extensive arsenal and ship-building depôt at Penang, and indeed several fine ships were built there, but the object was ultimately abandoned. At present Penang serves as a rendezvous for our naval squadron in the Indian seas, for which its position, healthiness, and abundance of provisions admirably qualify it; during the Burmese war Penang was found a most valuable station, as it would again be in the event of renewed hostilities. When, perhaps, the British dominion in Hindostan shall have terminated, or if a violent convulsion should occur to drive us temporarily from its territory, (circumstances which are not beyond the range of possibilities,) the possession of such insular stations as Penang, Ceylon, &c. will be found of incalculable worth. Their value now even is vast, and it may be expected will be appreciated more and more every day, as a spirit of enterprize leads our fellow subjects to a more intimate connexion with the fertile regions of the eastern hemisphere.

CHAPTER II.

MALACCA.

LOCALITY, AREA, HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT, CLIMATE—NATURAL PRODUCTS, &c.—POPULATION—GOVERNMENT—EDUCATION—COMMERCE, &c.

NEAR the southern extremity of the long Malayan peninsula [1] in latitude 2° 14′ north longitude, 102° 12′ east, is situated the British settlement of Malacca, extending about forty miles along shore by thirty inland, and containing an area of 800 square miles: bounded on the north by Salengore at Cape Rochado, on the south Johore, at the river Muar, on the east, by the Rumbo country, and on the west, by the straits of Malacca.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The sea coast is rocky and barren, with detached islets of cavernous rocks, which the Chinese used as places of sepulture. The interior is mountainous (being a continuation of the Alpine chain, which runs from the Brahmaputra river in Assam to the extremity of the peninsula); with several picturesque valleys, the highest mountain (named by the natives Lealdang, by the Portuguese *Mount Ophir)* has an elevation of 4000 feet above the sea. Colonel Farquhar was nearly six hours ascending to the highest part of Mount Ophir, the table surface on the top of which does not exceed

[1] The length of the Peninsula is 775 miles, with an average breadth of 125 miles.

forty yards square; the whole mountain appears to be a solid block of granite, here and there thinly covered with decayed vegetable soil. Stunted firs are found near the summit, and the vegetation of the mountain was quite different from that met with on the plains and valleys. The principal rivers are the Muar and Lingtuah, and the small streams and rivulets from the mountains are very numerous. The extreme point of the peninsula is a cluster of small islands; the roadstead is safe, and in the south-west monsoon vessels not drawing more than sixteen feet of water are secure in a harbour under the lee of the fort. Colonel Farquhar (who has made Malacca his study) observes that violent tempests never occur at its excellent anchoring ground, that the Sumatra squalls, which are common to the straits, seldom last above an hour or two, and that for upwards of twenty-five years while the English had possession of the place no ship had been lost.

History.—The Malayan peninsula, although the great majority of the inhabitants are Malays (whence it derives its name), is not the original country of that active, restless, courageous, vindictive, and ferocious people.

The present possessors (or Malayan princes and their subjects) emigrated in the thirteenth century, from Palembang in Sumatra (the original country of the Malays) about A. D. 1252, and founded the city of Malacca. As they extended their colonization, the aborigines of the country, who are oriental negroes with woolly hair, jet black skin (the Malays are copper coloured), thick lips, and flat nose, like the

African, and of diminutive stature, were driven inland to the mountains, where some of their unfortunate posterity still exist.

The Malayan chiefs soon became involved in hostilities with their neighbours, partly, perhaps, because their sultan, Mohammed Shah, adopted the Mahommedan religion from the Arabs, then the great traders in the East. Although the Malacca people were able to resist the attacks of the Siamese on their chief city, they were compelled to yield to the conquering Portuguese, who, in 1511, compelled Sultan Mohammed Shah, the twelfth of his line, and the seventh of the city of Malacca, to fly, after an obstinate resistance, to the extremity of the peninsula, where he founded the principality of Johore, which still exists. The Portuguese held Malacca until 1640, though with great difficulty, against the repeated assaults of the Sultans of Acheen, when it was assailed by the Dutch, who captured it after six months' siege. In 1795 it was seized by the British, but restored to the Dutch at the peace of Amiens in 1801. On the breaking out of the European war in 1807, it was again taken by the English, but again restored at the peace of 1815; however, in 1825, it was received by England, together with the Fort of Chinsurah on the river Hooghly, 20 miles from Calcutta, in exchange for the British settlements on the island of Sumatra.

Climate.—The climate is reckoned one of the healthiest in India, the temperature being uniform, the thermometer ranging from 72 to 85 the whole year round. The mornings and evenings are cool and refreshing, and the sultry nights of Hindostan

rarely occur. There is no regular monsoon, but the rainiest months are September, October, and November. The fluctuation of the barometer throughout the year is trifling, the range being 30.3 to 29.83, giving an annual variation of only one-fifth of an inch. The average of casualties in the garrison for seven years was two in 100, a fact which attests the salubrity of the climate.

Population.—The population of the settlement of Malacca[1], was in 1750, 1766, 1815, and 1817, thus,

	1817.	1815.	1766.	1750.
In the first street	1667	1605	Christians 1668	Christians 2339
In the second street.........	1006	944	Chinese ... 1390	Chinese ... 2161
From Tranquerah to Condor	2986	2946	Moors ... 1023	Moors ... 1520
Banda Hileer to Kassang	5263	5020	Malays ... 3135	Malays ... 3615
Bingho Rayo to Pankallang Battoo...............	6802	4397		
	1903	1966		
	19627	16878	7216	9635

In 1822 the population was 22,000, and the following is the latest return at the India House.

[1] The inhabitants of Malacca, in 1830, came to a unanimous resolution to liberate every slave in the settlement 31st December, 1841.

DISTRICTS.	Malays and Bugis.	Chinese.	Chulias.	Hindoos.	Bengalies.	Siamese.	Battas.	Arabs.	Native Christians.	Coffrees.	Total.
Malacca Town	895	2354	702	151	21	11	264	14	360	23	4795
Trankerra Quarter	747	566	1056	704	1	1	148	19	575	1	3818
Bandalier Quarter	901	234	92	...	...	1	5	...	773	3	2009
Bongaraya and Bukit China	1366	603	12	...	...	2	73	3	175	1	2235
Klaybang to Bamuan China	4102	149	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4251
Padang Temmo to Chin Chin	7268	269	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7537
Guallam Gantee to Sembrang Gajah	1765	323	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2088
Pringit to Panchor	1247	246	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1491
Nanning	4587	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4593
Total	22878	4748	1862	855	22	15	490	36	1883	28	32817
Itinerants supposed here at this season, about											800
Native Military and Followers and Convicts, about											760
Europeans and their Descendants, about											229
Total											34606

Abstract of the whole census of Malacca in 1826.

	No. of Houses.	Adults. Male. Married.	Adults. Male. Unmarried.	Adults. Females. Married.	Adults. Females. Unmarried.	Children. Boys.	Children. Girls.	Total.	Births. Males.	Births. Females.	Deaths. Males.	Deaths. Females.
Europ. and their descendants	52	32	23	32	29	45	42	233	8	4	3	4
Serannies, Dts. of Portuguese	425	413	346	465	346	397	322	2289	68	66	50	38
Malays	4608	4486	2476	4703	2261	4779	4587	23292	318	274	278	238
Chinese	929	736	1419	848	693	732	578	5006	88	83	77	75
Klings Mussulmen......	274	280	206	298	222	244	242	1492	45	41	24	23
Ditto Hindoos......	161	159	142	174	104	150	121	850	21	21	17	13
	6449	6106	4612	6530	3655	6357	5902	33162	548	489	449	391

	Malay debtors. Men.	Malay debtors. Women.	Malay debtors. Boys.	Malay debtors. Girls.	Malay debtors. Total.	Malay Slaves. Men.	Malay Slaves. Women.	Malay Slaves. Boys.	Malay Slaves. Girls.	Malay Slaves. Total.	Quantity of Seed of Paddy planted.	No. of Bullocks and Buffaloes.	Chinese Debtors.	Servants in Pay. Malays. Males.	Servants in Pay. Malays. Females.	Servants in Pay. Serannies. Males.	Servants in Pay. Serannies. Females.
Europ. and their Descendants......	17	14	9	7	47	70	89	34	31	224	409	73	23	58	20	6	16
Serannies, Dts of Portuguese	2	2	4	1	9	50	38	16	7	111	40	—	—	—	—	—	—
Malays	31	23	8	5	67	152	104	56	40	353	42655	6475	—	—	—	—	—
Chinese	—	—	—	—	—	239	172	56	58	525	591	47	—	—	—	—	—
Klings Mussulmen......	4	3	—	2	9	82	65	40	29	216	710	100	—	—	—	—	—
Ditto Hindoos	11	14	3	4	32	42	33	11	5	91	819	106	—	—	—	—	—
	65	56	24	19	164	635	501	213	170	1519	45227	6801	23	58	20	6	16

Natural Productions.—The staple of the settlement is tin mines (which are all within a circuit of twenty-five miles round Malacca), which produce, generally, 4,000 peculs (a pecul is 133 pounds avoirdupoise) a year. In the valleys vegetation is extremely luxuriant; rice yields from 200 to 300 fold; the sugar cane is equal to any produced in any part of the globe; coffee, cotton, indigo, chocolate, pepper, and spices, have all been tried, and thrive remarkably well. The spontaneous productions of the soil are very numerous, consisting of an almost endless variety of the richest and most delicious fruits and vegetables. The country is covered with very fine and durable timber for ship and house building; the *Murbon* tree, which is nearly equal to teak, is extremely abundant. Canes and rattans form a considerable branch of the exports; the forests yield gums, resins, and oils in great plenty; the camphor tree grows near the south-east extremity of the peninsula; a great variety of medicinal plants and drugs are common in the woods; the nutmeg grows wild. If the gold and tin mines in the vicinity of Malacca were scientifically worked, they would prove of great value; at present, the Malay and Chinese miners seldom dig below six or ten feet, and, as the veins become thin, remove from place to place. The gold from Hoolo Pahang, 100 miles inland from Malacca, is of the purest quality; and there are some small mines of gold at the foot of Mount Ophir, called Battang Moring, about thirty-six miles from Malacca.

Birds' nests, wax, cutch, dammeer, fish maws,

and sharks' fins (for Chinese soups) rattans, camphor, betelnuts, gold dust, sago, dragon's blood, ivory, hides, aguilla and sappan woods, &c. are among the principal productions. Captains of ships will be glad to hear that fruit and vegetables of every variety are abundant and low priced, and that poultry, hogs, buffaloes, and fish are plentiful and cheap. During the progress of the expedition against Java in 1811, 30,000 troops, with their followers were abundantly supplied with fresh provisions of every variety daily.

Commerce.—Malacca, being situate between the two great emporiums of trade in the eastern archipelago, Penang, and Singapore, the one at the north-west, and the other at the south-east of the straits, has necessarily a trade limited to its own consumption and produce. Before the establishment of the two latter named settlements, and during the monopolizing sway of the Dutch there, it was a place of considerable traffic.

Tin forms one of the principal items of export, and as the free trade captains may perhaps enter into the trade, it may be well to caution them of the adulterations practised by the Chinese and Malay miners. Lead is the metal usually alloyed with tin, and in order to detect adulterations, buyers may readily ascertain (with sufficient approximation to correctness) the extent of fraud endeavoured to be practised by melting a standard muster of pure tin in a large sized bullet mould with a small orifice, and then compare a mould of the tin under examination, with that of the pure metal; if the former be heavier,

the proportion of adulteration may readily be calculated. Antimony has the effect of hardening the admixture with lead, thereby increasing the difficulty of detection, as regards external appearances.

The tin mines are thus described in the Singapore Chronicle. The whole number of Chinamen connected with the mines at Sungie Hujong is probably 600, divided into ten Kung Se's or companies. They appeared more respectable, and have a greater command of capital, than those at Lookut. They are much fettered by the rajah, and are not allowed to sell an ounce of tin themselves; but here there is no such restriction. The mode of working the mines is much alike in both places, except at Sungie Hujong they have the advantage of the Chinese chain-pump, which is used for raising the water out of the mine pit. The apparatus is simple, consisting of a common water-wheel, a circular wooden chain about forty feet in circumference, and a long square box or trough, through which it runs in ascending. The wheel and chain, I think, revolve on a common axis, so that the motion of the former necessarily puts the latter into action. The chain consists of square wooden floats, a foot distant from each other, and strung as it were upon a continuous flexible axis, having a moveable joint between each pair. As the float-boards of the chain successively enter the lower part of the box or trough (immersed in water), a portion of water is constantly forced up by each, and discharged at the top. At one of the mines we were much struck with the simple but efficient mode of its application. There were three distinct planes, or

terraces, rising above each other. On the middle one was the wheel; the lower was the pit of the mine: from the higher a stream of water fell and turned the wheel, which, putting the whole machine into motion, brought up another stream from the pit; these two streams, from above and below, uniting on the middle plane, run off in a sluice, by which the ore was washed.

The total value of imports in 1828-29, was sicca rupees 10,81,782, of exports, sicca rupees, 6,72,211. The imports of specie amounted to sicca rupees, 4,19,717; and the exports amounted to sicca rupees, 2,65,239. The value of imports from Calcutta is sicca rupees 1,12,565; from Madras 2,43,178; from England 1,01,664; and from small native ports 2,98,591.

The accounts, however, of this government, as stated by Mr. Fullerton are extremely defective.

Weights and Measures.—Throughout the Straits of Malacca the common weights are the pecul, catty, and tael. The Malay pecul, three of which make a bahar, is heavier,than the common or Chinese pecul, which is = $133\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. Rice and salt are usually sold by the coyan of forty peculs nearly, and gold dust by the bunkal = 832 grs. troy. The gantang (by which grain, fruit, and liquids are sold) = $1\frac{1}{4}$ English gallon is divided into two bamboos. Twenty gantanes of rice make a bag, and forty bags a coyan. Cloth is measured by the astah or covid of eighteen inches nearly. Land, by the orlong of twenty jumbas = $1\frac{1}{3}$ acre.

Currency.—The currency of the straits is Spanish

dollars divided into 100 cents. The Dutch rix dollar and guilder (divided into fanams and doits) are also used, chiefly at Malacca. One guilder = 12 fanams = 120 doits. The rix dollar is a nominal coin of about 20 fanams, 31 or 32 of which make a Spanish dollar. The silver coins comprise dollars of all descriptions, guilders and half guilders. The copper, the cent, half and quarter cent; there are also doits, stivers, and wangs, including a great variety of copper coins, of different countries.

Revenue.—When acquired by the British government, the whole revenue of the settlement was but 20,000 dollars; its revenue accounts are now incorporated with those of the other settlement (vide Penang).

Education.—One of the most valuable British institutions in the east, is the Anglo-Chinese college at Malacca, established in 1818, by the joint efforts of the late Rev. Drs. Morrison and Milne. The object in view is the reciprocal cultivation of Chinese and European literature, and the instruction of native youths in the principles of Christianity. The native Chinese students in the college generally average from twenty-five to thirty, all of whom are on the foundation of the college, receiving each a monthly allowance. Several valuable and interesting translations have been made from Chinese books, and English standard works have been translated into Chinese: a foundry for types has been established, paper manufactured, and a periodical commenced. The college is indebted for existence to private contribution, and it is to be hoped that so useful an in-

stitution will not be allowed to languish for want of support. Attached to the college at Malacca are several schools, the whole of which are supported by the London Missionary Society; the Chinese schools alone contain nearly 300 boys, and the Tamul schools are increasing. The female schools at Malacca are doing well, and three schools have been established by the Malays for the instruction of their countrymen in the English language. Schools are also established at Tavoy, Moulmien, and Rangoon. At the latter place, the head master is a Chinaman, who has been brought up in the Anglo-Chinese college at Malacca.

The following report of the London Missionary Society, in 1835, relative to Malacca, will be acceptable to every Christian:—

MALACCA.—The report from this station, for 1833, which was received a considerable time after the last anniversary, contains much gratifying information. The directors learn that

Preaching, which our brethren justly consider as the most important, because divinely appointed means of effecting the conversion of men, is assiduously attended to in this department, in no less than four languages, viz.—

English, twice on the Sabbath, and once in the week, Wednesday evening. The attendance is tolerably good. On Thursday evening, Mr. Evans meets a Bible class, and there is, besides, the monthly missionary prayer meeting. The Lord has granted a blessing upon these labours.

Chinese.—Daily worship in the College. Extra services in the same place on Monday and Thursday evenings, attended by the students, the Chinese printers, and the boys and teachers of the school in the College Compound. On Tuesday and Friday evenings Mr. Evans has a Bible class for Chinese men, between seven and eight o'clock, which consists of thirty per-

sons and upwards: the number is increasing. It is held in the College Hall. After reading, expounding, and questioning upon the portion of Scripture under consideration, an exhortation is given, and the whole concluded with singing and prayer. Sometimes one of the Chinese converts is called upon to engage in prayer, who does it with much sincerity and simplicity.

Mr. Evans observes, "It is truly astonishing to hear how well the Chinese begin to understand the word of God; their improvement is delightful." On Sabbath morning there is preaching in the Mission Chapel.

Malay.—Daily worship in a room adjoining the College Hall, attended by the domestics, letter-press printers, and others. Preaching in the Mission Chapel every Sabbath evening, when chiefly the servants of the Dutch inhabitants attend. The average number is about forty.

Portuguese.—Preaching every Sabbath afternoon in the Mission Chapel. Average attendance fifty. Prayer meetings on week day evenings, which are well attended.

In reference to the attendance on public worship, we subjoin an extract from a letter from Mr. Evans, dated 20th October, 1834, where he writes thus:—

"My services, both on Sabbaths and week days, are all well attended. It appears to me that the Lord is stirring up a spirit of earnest inquiry among this immense population of the human race, and that he will, ere long, shine into their souls, and, by the gracious influences of His Holy Spirit, soften their hard hearts."

When the report left Malacca, there were several individuals in the English congregation who appeared to have received salutary religious impressions, and also six Malays, who were candidates for baptism.

Schools.—The number of schools and scholars were as follows, viz.:—Chinese boys, 4 schools, 180 scholars; girls, 3 schools, 90 scholars; total, 270 Chinese. Malay boys and girls, 6 schools, 200 scholars. Portuguese boys and girls, 4 schools, 120 scholars; Tamil boys and girls, 2 schools, 70 scholars; in all, 19 schools, 660 scholars.

The three Chinese girls' schools were formed after Mr.

Evans's arrival at Malacca. The Portuguese and Tamil schools are entirely supported by private subscriptions. The children's progress is said to be encouraging; and the teachers, especially the Malay teachers, seem ready to afford the children every facility in acquiring the knowledge of the Christian religion.

Distribution of Books.—The following is the amount of Scriptures and tracts which have been issued from the depository at Malacca, viz.—

	Scriptures.	Tracts.
To China . . .	295	6485
Penang . . .	100	1700
Singapore . . .	400	969
Batavia . . .	500	3310
And circulated in and about Malacca	600	4203
Total .	1895	16,658

Several missionary tours to the districts surrounding Malacca have been made, for the purpose of distributing tracts and Scriptures; the people, both Chinese and Malays, willingly receive the books. It has been ascertained, that those formerly distributed have been read, and their contents, in many instances, fixed on the minds of the readers. The Chinese carefully preserve the books that are given to them, and it is gratifying to observe, that the Panghooloos, or chiefs of the Malays, seem very favourable to the instruction of the people. On this subject Mr. Evans thus speaks, in a recent letter from Malacca:—

"The thirst of the Chinese for our religious books becomes greater and greater every day. They come inquiring for them. Though twelve men are constantly employed in the Chinese printing department, yet pleasing, though painful to add, we are not able to get books finished fast enough. The people around are crying out for them. The brethren at other stations are crying. There seems almost an universal cry among the Chinese, which seems to indicate the dawn of a new era rapidly advancing, and which will shine brighter and brighter, until the perfect day."

Printing.—In 1833, the following works were executed at the Malacca press, viz.—

	Copies.
Four of Dr. Milne's popular tracts, bound in 1 volume	3000
Commentary on the Ten Commandments . .	2200
Collie's Scripture Extracts . . .	400
Ditto, in small sizes	400
Collie's Life of Christ, in poetry . . .	500
Strait Gate	1000
Three Character Classic	700
Commentary on the Lord's Prayer . .	1500
Catechism	100
Comparative Chronology	1000
Total .	10,800

During the year that is past, the services of our brethren have been continued. The morning service, in Chinese, held in the College, is attended by seventy Chinese, and sometimes a larger number. On Sabbath, the 4th of May last year, Mr. Evans delivered his first sermon in Chinese, and is now able to engage in all the branches of the Chinese department of the mission. The hearts of the Chinese seem to be opening to the truth, and they receive with eagerness the words of eternal life, whether offered in books or by the living voice; the mission wears a promising aspect, and the Lord is blessing his work. Four native adults were baptized in July; one of these was a Chinese female, and the others a Malay and two Malay females. There were then several more candidates, both Chinese and Malays. The females are all instructed in their catechism by Mr. Evans, who is much pleased with their progress.

Mr. Evans describes Leang-a-fa as a devoted Christian and a useful man, willing to suffer for the Lord's sake. He now acts as an Evangelist among the thousands of Chinese in and about Malacca.

A number of young Chinese are pursuing a course of study and training for missionary work.

Anglo-Chinese College.—The report for 1832 and 1833 has but recently come to hand.

At the close of 1832 the number of students was 25. During that year there were printed at the College press complete sets of the Scriptures, 130; the four gospels, separately, 500 each, 2000; and various tracts, 5900; total, 8030.

At the beginning of 1833, the number of students was increased to 40; but several of the elder students having left, 32 remained at the close of that year. A Chinese Bible class was commenced in March, 1833, which is attended by the Chinese schoolmasters, the Chinese teachers, and six of the senior students.

The Bible Society and the Tract Society have respectively afforded their constant and liberal aid towards the printing of the Scriptural tracts.

The College library has been augmented by presents of several authors, and also from the *Société Asiatique* at Paris.

General View.—The important geographical position of the settlement as commanding the straits which form the direct passage from India to China, &c.; its healthiness, and cheapness, render it a fitting place for the establishment of a seat of government for the eastern settlements; the advantage of which would be more and more appreciated in our new commercial arrangements with China. Both Singapore and Malacca are too distant to be kept as mere residences of Bengal; and the Governor-general has quite enough to do already without attending to those places, although therefore a general control might be kept up from the supreme government, it would be better to make Malacca head quarters for our stations in the eastern archipelago.

CHAPTER III.

SINGAPORE (SINGHAPURA.)

LOCALITY, AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, HISTORY, POPULATION, REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE, SOCIAL CONDITION, AND POLITICAL AND GENERAL ADVANTAGES, &c.

This rapidly rising emporium of trade, is situate on the southern extremity of the peninsula of Malacca just described, in latitude 1° 17′ 22″ north; longitude, 103° 51′ 45″ east[1]; of an elliptical form, about from twenty-five to twenty-seven miles in its greatest length from east to west; to fifteen miles in its greatest breadth from north to south; and containing an estimated area of 270 square miles, with about fifty small desert isles within ten miles around it, in the adjacent straits, whose area is about sixty miles; the whole settlement embracing a maritime and insular dominion of about 100 miles in circumference.

Physical Aspect.—The island is on the north separated from the main land of the Malayan peninsula, by a very small strait, which in its narrowest part is not more than one quarter of a mile wide. On the front, and distant about nine miles, is an extensive chain of almost desert isles, the channel between which and Singapore is the grand route of commerce

[1] This is the position of the town.

between east and west Asia. The aspect is low and level, with an extensive chain of saline and fresh water marshes, in several parts covered with lofty timber and luxuriant vegetation: here and there, low rounded sand hills interspersed with spots of level ground, formed of a ferruginous clay with a sandy substratum.

The town stands on the south coast, on a point of land near the west end of a bay where there is a salt creek or river navigable for lighters nearly a mile from the sea; on the east side of the town is a deep inlet for the shelter of native boats. The town consists generally of stone houses of two story high, but in the suburbs called Campong-glam, Campong-Malacca, and Campong-China, bamboo huts are erected on posts, most of them standing in the stagnant water. On the east side of the harbour enterprising British merchants are erecting substantial and ornamental houses fronting the sea, presenting a strange contrast to the wretched tenements of the Malays. The ground is generally raised three feet, and the mansions have a superb entrance by an ascent of granite stairs, then an elegant portico supported by a magnificent Grecian columns of every order of architecture: the rooms are lofty, with Venetian windows down to the floor, and furnished in a luxuriant manner; each tenement provided with its baths, billiard tables, &c., while the grounds are tastily laid out with shrubs of beautiful foliage, the *tout ensemble* affording a most picturesque prospect from the shipping in the roadstead.

Geology.—The principal rock is red sand-stone,

which changes in some parts to a breccia or conglomerate, containing large fragments and crystals of quartz. The whole contiguous group of isles, about thirty in number, as well as Singapore, are apparently of a submarine origin, and their evulsion probably of no very distant date.

Climate.—Notwithstanding its lowness, marshiness, intertropical position and consequent high temperature, with a rapid and constant evaporation by a nearly vertical sun, from a rank and luxuriant vegetation, and a profusion of animal and vegetable matter in every stage of putrefaction, Singapore has hitherto proved exceedingly healthy, owing perhaps to its maritime position. Being so near the equator there is of course little variety of seasons, either summer or winter: Fahrenheit ranges from 71° to 89°: the periodical rains are brief, indistinctly marked, and extending over about 150 days of the year.

CLIMATE OF SINGAPORE.

	BAROMETER.						THERMOMETER.					
	Greatest Range.			Least Range.			Greatest Range.			Least Range.		
	Six A.M.	Noon.	Six P.M.	Six A.M.	Noon.	Six P.M.	Six A.M.	Noon.	Six P.M.	Six A.M.	Noon.	Six P M.
January	30.03	30.06	29.99	29.90	29.90	29.87	77	86	83	72	75	74
February	30.02	30.04	30.00	29.88	29.91	29.87	79	87	85	74	82	78
March	29.97	29.99	29.97	29.83	29.85	29.83	80	88	86	73	76	79
April	29.99	29.99	29.95	29.85	29.87	29.82	81	87	87	73	80	79
May	29.94	29.99	29.91	29.83	29.84	29.82	81	87	86	75	78	80
June	29.98	29 97	29.97	29.80	29.86	29.82	84	88	87	75	77	77
July	29.95	29.96	29.92	29.82	29.83	29.83	82	88	85	73	78	77
August	29.95	29.99	29.95	29 85	29.88	29.84	81	87	85	75	78	78
September	29.99	30.03	29.98	29.85	29.87	29.83	82	87	85	74	76	77
October	29.96	29.97	29.95	29.83	29.88	29.80	79	88	86	75	76	79
November	29.91	29.95	29.93	29.80	29.83	29.80	79	86	86	71	80	79
December	29.94	30.00	29 98	29.82	29.85	29.82	78	85	86	73	75	75
Annual average	29.97	29.99	29.95	29.84	29.86	29.83	80 2	87	85.6	73.6	77.6	77 6

History.—The Malay annals relate that in A.D. 1252, Sri Iscandar Shah, the last Malay prince of Singapore, being hard pressed by the king of Majopahit, in Java, returned to the main land, where he founded the city of Malacca. That the Dutch or Portuguese may have settled on the island is probable from the remains of religious buildings and other structures, which indicate its having been once thickly inhabited. On the design of Sir Stamford Raffles the settlement of Singapore was first formed in February 1818, and its sovereignty in its present extent confirmed to Great Britain in 1825, by a convention with the King of Holland and the Malay Princes of Jehore[1].

Population.—When taken possession of by our establishment in 1820, it had been inhabited for eight years by about *one hundred and fifty Malays*, half fishermen and half pirates. Within the brief space of time from 1820 to 1832, its population has thus rapidly progressed (we have no correct data previous to the end of 1823).

[1] There is, I believe, a pension of 24,000 Spanish dollars a year paid by the East India Company to this Rajah, as an equivalent for the cession.

Population of Singapore from the end of 1823 to beginning of 1833.

—	1823	1824	1825	1826	1827	1828	1832
Europeans	74	84	111	87	108	122	119
Native Christians	74	132	206	188	193	272	300
Armenians	16	9	18	19	25	24	35
Arabs	15	10	17	18	17	32	96
Natives of Coromandel and Malabar	390	690	605	777	1095	1410	1819
Natives of Bengal and other parts of Hindostan	366	226	384	244	294	455	400
Indo-Britons	—	—	—	...	—	—	96
Bugis, Balinese, &c.	1851	1704	1442	1242	1252	1360	1726
Malays	4580	5130	5697	4790	5336	5750	7131
Javanese	—	38	146	267	356	637	595
Chinese	3317	3828	4279	6088	6210	7575	8517
African Negroes	—	—	2	5	—	—	37
Total	10683	11851	12905	13725	14885	17664	20917

The following Census of the Population (with its divisions) of the settlement has been furnished me from the India House, and as it has not before been published, its printing may now be useful.

List of the Population at Singapore on the 1st of January, 1829.

SINGAPORE TOWN.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	24	2	26
Native Christians	17	7	24
Malays	356	304	660
Chinese	94	8	102
Natives of Bengal	104	3	107
Ditto of the Coast of Coromandel	72	1	73
Arabs	7	1	8
Javanese	7	9	16
Total	681	335	1016
GAMPONG GLAM.			
Europeans	27	16	43
Native Christians	19	10	29
Malays	673	797	1470
Chinese	817	22	839
Natives of Bengal	38	7	45
Ditto of the Coast of Coromandel	97	7	104
Buggies, Balanese, &c.	216	67	283
Javanese	95	84	179
Total	1982	1010	2992
ISLANDS.			
Europeans	1	—	1
Native Christians	6	—	6
Malays	562	520	1082
Chinese	45	2	47
Natives of Bengal	4	—	4
Buggies, Balanese, &c.	127	68	195
Javanese	1	—	1
Total	746	590	1336

(Continued.)

CAMPONG CHINA.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	33	4	37
Armenians	18	6	24
Native Christians	80	71	151
Malays	382	452	834
Chinese	4125	341	4466
Natives of Bengal	56	17	73
Ditto of the Coast of Coromandel	1150	4	1154
Buggies, Balanese, &c.	2	69	71
Javanese	82	55	137
Arabs	22	2	24
Total	5950	1021	6971
COUNTRY AND PLANTATIONS.			
Europeans	12	3	15
Native Christians	47	15	62
Malays	927	779	1704
Chinese	2082	39	2121
Natives of Bengal	179	47	226
Ditto of the Coast of Coromandel	104	5	109
Buggies, Balanese, &c.	446	365	811
Javanese	276	25	301
Total	4073	1276	5349
SUMMARY.			
Singapore	681	335	1016
Campong China	5950	1021	6971
Campong Glam	1982	1010	2992
Country and Plantations	4073	1276	5349
Islands	746	590	1336
Grand Total	13432	4232	17664

Census of Singapore, 1st January, 1833, shewing the proportion of Males to Females.

Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	91	28	119
Indo Britons	56	40	96
Native Christians	167	133	300
Armenians	27	8	35
Arabs	96	0	96
Natives of Coromandel and Malabar	1762	57	1819
Ditto of Bengal and other parts	389	11	400
Jews	2	0	2
Siamese	5	2	7
Buggies, Balinese, &c.	794	932	1726
Malays	3763	3368	7131
Javanese	361	234	595
Chinese	7650	867	8517
Caffres	23	14	37
Total	15181	5797	20978

To the foregoing must be added 553 convicts, and military and their followers 600, making a grand total of 22,000 mouths, where a few short years ago there was not 109! The leading merchants, agents, shopkeepers, and auctioneers are Englishmen. There are several wealthy Chinese merchants, and the bulk of the shopkeepers and most valuable part of the citizens are Chinese, nearly 5,000 of whom arrive annually from China by the yearly trading junks, about 1,000 of whom remain at Singapore, and the remainder disperse themselves over the neighbouring islands. The Malays are chiefly fishermen, and the natives of the Coromandel coast boat-men.

Society is divided as at Presidencies, into four

distinct castes—1st, The civilians of the Company. 2d. The military. 3d. First class merchants. 4th. Second class merchants, shopkeepers, &c.; and, as in all small communities, they are exclusive in their coteries.

There is an American Missionary and two Roman Catholic Priests in the island, but as yet no house of worship. A Romish chapel is in progress, and near its completion; and some who would not give a farthing for their own religion, are liberal enough to contribute handsomely in aid of a church for others. The humbler classes are uneducated, but honest and faithful to their employers.

Natural Productions.—From the foregoing description it will be seen that the island can as yet have few indigenous productions; it is in fact a commercial emporium, and probably will never be much more. Its chief staple is the agaragar of the Malays *(fucus saccharinus)*, a plant like fern, which abounds on the coral shoals around Singapore, and produces in China from six to eight dollars per pecul, in its dry bulky state. By the Chinese it is converted into glue, paint, &c. &c., for glazing their cottons, and sacrifice paper; the finest portion is made into a rich jelly, which makes a delicious sweetmeat when preserved in syrup. The harvest of this sea-weed is from 6,000 to 12,000 peculs annually.

There are about ten sago manufactories at Singapore, giving employment to 200 Chinese manufacturers; the quantity of pearl sago exported from the island during 1834 was—to England, peculs 17,030; Calcutta, 1,700; Bombay, 970; China, 300; Cape,

150; Hamburgh, 1,870; America, 300; Madras, &c. 780;—total, 23,100 peculs. The sago is not grown in the island, but brought in its rough state from Borneo, &c.

Commerce.—No accounts of the trade of the island were kept prior to 1824, since then the value of the imports and exports have been as follows:

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Both.
	£	£	£
1824.........	1455509	1390268	2845717
1825.........	1323917	1228786	2552703
1826.........	1361978	1388306	2750284
1827.........	1488599	1387201	2875800
1828.........	1961120	1804660	3765780
1829.........	2121559	1876250	3997809
1830.........	1875350	1826634	3701984
1831.........	1780994	1565157	3346151

The account of its trade with different countries will be seen by the following return of the comparative statement of the trade of Singapore (imports and exports) with the different countries in 1830-31 and 1831-32, &c.

Comparative statement of the Imports and Exports of Singapore for 1830-31 and 1831-32.

Countries.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1830-31.	1831-32.	1830-31.	1831-32.
England ....Sp. D.	1161945	1514664	3535576	3037926
Foreign Europe........................	75301	81302	99637	20976
South America	31563	6016	—	—
Mauritius, &c...........................	5897	7068	18484	12661
Calcutta	1215958	1072852	1061636	879559
Madras....................................	48733	141049	135714	148576
Bombay	105625	91575	193125	172501
China	2857505	2433959	899305	735412
Java	1135025	978978	542389	359693
Rhio	84915	92216	61648	75039
Siam	200007	243980	149449	212180
Cochin China	37717	126402	40778	223405
Ceylon	12724	7341	14849	—
Acheen and N. Pepp. Ports	77	35290	725	—
Sumatra	187398	151589	167511	165285
E. C. Peninsula	375595	320271	410693	310145
Straits	40424	27904	30583	24044
Celebes..................................	234346	173917	258924	167716
Borneo	244176	209637	192229	178016
Bally......................................	71142	53471	102829	52596
Manilla	204153	40303	164700	33328
Camboja	17638	9055	14624	7700
Other Ports, &c......................	110871	118135	175875	124784
Total Sp. D...	8458731	7936974	8271223	6941542
	7936974		6941542	
Difference......	521757		1329681	

Imports from		Exports to
Malacca...Square Rigged, V. Sp. D.	88,186	Square Rigged, 104,755
Ditto ......Native Craft	81,978	Native Craft ... 81,999
Penang ...Square Rigged	318,267	Square Rigged 236,720
Ditto ......Native Craft	35,378	Native Craft ... 70,411

The number of vessels under each flag is thus shewn:—in 1833-34—*Import Tonnage* 1833-34, *by square-rigged Vessels; under what Flags.*—From *Great Britain,* 28 vessels under British Flag; *Continental Europe,* 2 French, 2 Hamburgh, 2

Danish, 1 Portuguese; *Isle of France,* 2 British, 1 French; *China,* 42 British, 1 Hamburgh, 1 Danish, 4 Dutch, 9 Portuguese; *Manilla,* 15 British, 1 Danish, 4 Spanish; *Calcutta,* 38 British, 2 Portuguese; *Madras* and *Coast,* 9 British, 1 French; *Bombay* and *Coast,* 41 British, 1 French, 9 Portuguese; *Arabia,* 2 Arab; *Moulmein,* 1 British; *Ceylon,* 4 British; *Malacca,* 56 British, 8 Portuguese; *Penang,* 43 British, 1 Danish, 1 Portuguese, 1 Malay; *Java,* 3 British, 1 Hambourg, 67 Dutch, 2 Cochin Chinese; *Sumatra,* 8 British, 1 Hambourg, 1 Danish, 5 Dutch, 2 Malay; *Rhio,* 4 British, 1 French, 1 American; *Siam,* 5 British; *Borneo,* 5 British, 7 Dutch; *Cochin China,* 1 French, 2 Cochin Chinese; *Tringanu,* 6 British, 1 Dutch; *New South Wales,* 15 British; *Bali* and *Eastern Islands,* 1 Portuguese: *Bourbon,* 2 French; *United States America,* 2 American. Totals—325 under British flag, 9 French, 5 Hamburgh, 6 Danish, 3 American, 92 Dutch, 23 Portuguese, 4 Spanish, 2 Arab, 4 Cochin Chinese, 3 Malay. Grand Total—475 vessels, tonnage, 137,298.

Native craft.—Statement of the number and tonnage of native vessels, prahus, and junks, which have imported into and exported from Singapore during the official year 1833-34:—

Imports.—China 27 vessels, 4642 tons; Cochinchina and Camboja 49, 3010; Siam 24, 3792; East side of the Peninsula 72, 1689; Borneo 138, 3096; Celebes 55, 1345; Bally 63, 1566; Java 72, 2986; Sumatra 514, 3744; Penang 8, 420; Malacca 60, 2608; West side of the Peninsula 46, 341; Rhio 251, 3613; Neighbour Islands 220, 2075.

Exports.—China 9 vessels, 1447 tons; Cochinchina and Camboja 27, 1966; Siam 17, 2537; East side of the Peninsula 76, 1565; Borneo 148, 3231; Celebes 102, 2041; Bally 73, 2043; Java 44, 2120; Sumatra 397, 3309; Penang 5, 447; Malacca 68, 3903; West side of the Peninsula 36, 250; Rhio 264, 3863; Neighbour Islands 214, 2055.

Gold forms one of the most valuable imports of Singapore. The principal portion is from Pahang on

the coast of the peninsula, and it is considered superior to the metal brought from other places. The various places whence this important product is shipped from Singapore will be seen by the returns for 1831.

From Ports on East Coast of Peninsula:

Pahang—bunkals—4,285. Calantan—ditto—300.

From Borneo:

Lambas—bunkals—	1,508.	Papes —ditto—	58.
Pontiana —ditto—	633.	Bintoola—ditto—	20.
Soongai Rayoe——	417.	Banjar, &c.	32.

Sumatra—Jambie—bunkals—104. Campar—ditto—169.

Celebes island ditto 560. Other islands 31.

Total—8,103.

Or *Catties* [1]—405—bunkals—3.

The greater part of this immense quantity is sent to Calcutta for opium, &c.

General View.—As a commercial mart, and key to the navigation of the seas, in which it is situate, this settlement is of incalculable importance; we have seen by the foregoing accounts, that it has sprung up within the short space of ten or twelve years from a desert isle to a rich and flourishing settlement, exporting annually 3,000,000*l.* worth of goods. It has two periodical journals well conducted; its inhabitants are imbued with a manly and independent spirit, and its trade is as yet but in its infancy. The opening of the Chinese market will not diminish its resort, but on the contrary, increase it; situate as it is in the

[1] A *cattie* is 1 lb. and 1-3d avoirdupois.

centre of myriads of active and industrious nations, inhabiting rich and fertile lands, abounding in every species of tropical produce, of which Europe, America, or China has need, ready to receive in return the manufactures of Britain to an almost illimitable extent, and being unmolested in its progress by harbour duties, dues, or charges of any description, it requires nothing but a withdrawal of England from her narrow minded and miserable commercial policy of excluding eastern produce, to make our trade with the Asiatic Archipelago (of which Singapore is now the entrepôt) one of the most valuable branches of our mercantile connexions.

While on this subject, I would urgently recommend the formation of a mercantile colony at Formosa, as a means of securing our China trade and opening new branches of commerce with Japan, the Leuchoo islands, &c. We want also a permanent footing in the China seas in a maritime point of view, and if Government do not undertake such, it would pay well a Joint Stock Company to form an entrepot on this highly valuable island. My plan for such a Colony may be seen at the Office of the Colonial Secretary in London.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS

IN THE

ATLANTIC OCEAN;

COMPRISING

THE FALKLAND ISLANDS, ST. HELENA, ASCENSION, SIERRA LEONE, THE GAMBIA, CAPE COAST CASTLE, &c. &c.

SEAL OF SIERRA LEONE.

BOOK III.

THE FALKLAND ISLANDS.

CHAPTER IV.

LOCALITY—EXTENT—CLIMATE—SOIL—HARBOURS—PRODUCTIONS, AND ADVANTAGES TO GREAT BRITAIN.

The Falkland islands, between the parallels of 51° 10′ and 52° 30′ south, and the meridian 58° and 62° west, contiguous to the Straits of Magellan, so advantageously situated as a refreshing port for our numerous ships doubling Cape Horn, and as a cruising station for our ships of war in the Pacific, were first discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins during the reign of Queen Elizabeth, in the year 1594, or, as some think, by Captain Davis, in 1592, an English navigator under Sir Thomas Cavendish; they were subsequently visited by a ship belonging to St. Maloes, from which they were called by the French, 'the Malouins;' and also subsequently, by the Spa-

niards, 'the Malvinas.' Little, however, was known of them until Commodore Byron, when on a voyage of discovery to the South Seas, visited them in January, 1765, and formally took possession of them for his Majesty Geo. III. under the title of 'the Falkland Islands,' though others say this name had been previously given them by an English navigator named Strong, in 1689. After being there about fourteen days, he left Port Egmont on Sunday, 27th January, and described it as being the finest harbour in the world, capacious enough to hold all the navy of England in full security. Geese, ducks, snipes, and other fowl were found in such abundance, that the sailors were quite tired with eating them; and in every part there was a plentiful supply of water.

When the French lost the Canadas, a colony of farmers was transported thither by M. de Bougainville, and about the same time a British colony was established at Port Egmont by Capt. M'Bride; but their right being disputed by the Spaniards, M. de Bougainville surrendered the possession of his part to the latter in April, 1767. Great Britain, however, by virtue of her original discovery, claimed the sovereignty, which led to a rupture with Spain in the year 1770, and the point was warmly and strongly contested for a considerable period. Spain, however, finally conceded our right to the islands.

The two largest of the islands are about 70 leagues in circumference, and divided by a channel 12 leagues in length, and from 1 to 3 in breadth. The harbours are large, and well defended by small islands, most happily disposed. The smallest vessels may

ride in safety; fresh water is easily to be obtained; there is seldom any thunder or lightning, nor is the weather hot or cold to any extraordinary degree. Throughout the year the nights are in general serene and fair; and, upon the whole, the climate is favourable to the constitution. The depth of the soil in the valleys is more than sufficient for the purpose of ploughing.

Since 1767 they fell into comparative insignificance; and, for many years past, little notice has been taken of them by our government. Ships of war, on their passage round Cape Horn, have occasionally touched there for supplies of water, &c. and South Sea whalers and other merchant vessels; but the navigation being little known, they have not, until lately, been much frequented, although very nearly in the track of ships homeward-bound from the Pacific.

Latterly, however, circumstances arose which induced the last commander-in-chief on the South American station (Sir Thomas Baker), to send down a ship of war for the purpose of reclaiming that possession, which lapse of time seemed to have rendered almost absolutely abandoned. The Buenos Ayrean Government have, however, endeavoured to set up a claim to the islands [1].

In the month of December, 1832, Commander Onslow, in H.M.S. *Clio*, proceeded to Port Egmont, and found on Saunders' Island the ruins of our for-

[1] The Spaniards had formerly used the islands as a prison for South American delinquents.

mer establishment. The town stood on the south side of a mountain not less than 600 feet high. The settlers had extended their gardens to the westward, the remains of which are still perceptible. Not finding any inhabitants, an *inscription* was left there, attached to a signal staff, on a spot which appeared to be Fort George, stating, 'That these islands had been visited by his Britannic Majesty's ship *Clio*, for the purpose of exercising the rights of sovereignty, 23d December, 1832[1].'

During their stay of ten days, the boats were employed in examining Brett's Harbour, Byron's Sound, Keppel's Sound, and to the westward to Point Bay, a distance of sixty miles from the *Clio's* anchorage.

At Port Louis, on East Falkland Island, a Buenos Ayrean schooner of war was lying, and a small party of soldiers under the same flag occupied the shore, where there was an inconsiderable settlement of foreign persons, chiefly Buenos Ayreans, who were engaged in catching wild cattle, &c. for the supply of such ships as occasionally touched there.

Port Louis, at the head of Berkeley Sound, is admirably adapted for vessels to refit at, under any circumstances, it is well sheltered, and has an inner harbour for vessels drawing fourteen feet of water, where they may heave down with safety if requisite. Water is also good and plentiful; and, reflecting on the number of vessels passing and repassing Cape Horn, and the accidents they are liable to, from the

[1] Lieut. H. Smyth, of H. M. ship *Tyne*, was subsequently sent down with a boat's crew to settle on the islands.

tempestuous weather frequently experienced off that Cape, the advantages of a port of refuge becomes apparent.

Vegetable Productions and Fruits.—The generality of the surface of these islands is covered with a turf, or black peat, found chiefly above a yellow clayey soil, and formed of roots of plants in marshy situations; there are however spacious meadows, abundantly watered, and producing excellent grasses, much relished by cattle. The most curious of the vegetable productions is a resinous plant, or rather excrescence, for it grows from the earth without stalk, branch, or leaves, called the resinous gum plant. It is frequently six feet in diameter, and eighteen inches high, and so strong as to bear the weight of a man. Its surface ejects drops of a tough resinous matter, of a yellow colour, and about the size of peas, having a strong odour like turpentine. Great quantities of water cresses, sorrel, and wild parsley, are found in every direction, as well as a small shrub of the nature of spruce, which, being made into beer by the help of molasses, has proved an excellent antiscorbutic to seamen afflicted with scurvy after a long voyage on salt provisions. Scarcely any fruits are found, indeed only two fit for use, which grow upon creeping plants, and are similar to the mulberry of Europe, and the *lucet* of North America. Though there are numerous flowering plants, only one, which had a smell like that of a rose, appeared to yield any perfume. No trees have been met with.

Animals.—Only one species of animal was found in the island, a kind of wolf-fox, which Byron de-

scribes as extremely fierce, running from a great distance to attack the sailors when they landed, and even pursuing them into the boat. It is about the size of a shepherd's dog, and kennels under ground, subsisting on the seals and birds, which it catches along the shore. Sea lions, wallrusses, and seals, are abundant about the coast, many of them of great size, and very fierce. Swans, wild green ducks, teal, and all kinds of sea-fowl, are found in great numbers, and so tame were some of the birds when the first settlers landed there, that they would suffer themselves to be caught by the hand, and often perch upon the heads of the people. There is a bird, called the grele, of beautiful plumage, and a kind of gentle note, whose flesh is much esteemed, and which suffers itself to be approached so as to be knocked down with a stick; there are also falcons, snipes, owls, curlews, herons, thrushes, &c. Fish are not so plentiful, but they consist of mullet, pike, sardini, gradlaw; and in the fresh water, a green trout, without scales; all sorts of small shell-fish are found around the coast, but it is difficult to get at them, or indeed for a boat to land, on account of the prodigious quantity of sea-weed with which the shore is loaded. The tides produce a curious phenomenon, they do not rise at the settled calculated periods, but, just before high water the sea rises and falls three times; and this motion is always more violent during the equinoxes and full moons, at which time several coralines, the finest mother-of-pearl, and the most delicate sponges are thrown up with it; and amongst other shells, a curious bivalve, called *la*

poulette, found no where else but in a fossil state.

In addition to numerous hogs, wild fowl, and rabbits, there are several thousand head of wild cattle and horses, roaming over a large expanse of delicious pasturage.

As it appears likely that more attention will in future be paid to these islands by our Government[1], I subjoin, for the information of navigators especially, the following account of East (it was on the West island at Port Egmont the British settlement was when forcibly broken up by the Spaniards in 1770) Falkland Island, drawn up by M. Vernet (who had an establishment at Berkeley Sound, adjoining the ruins of that founded by M. de Bougainville previous to 1767, near Port Louis), for W. Parish, Esq., and read before the Royal Geographical Society, 14th January, 1833.

East Falkland Island possesses large and secure harbours for first-rate ships of war, with facilities for exercising the crews on shore without the risk of losing them, and with abundance of wild cattle, antiscorbutic herbs, and fish, for their support.

The country, in the northern part of the island, is rather mountainous. The highest part was called San Simon, at no great distance from the bottom of Berkeley Sound. The tops of the mountains are thickly strewn with large boulders, or detached

[1] Within the last few years numerous whalers—English, American, and French, have been cruising off and refitting in the Falkland Isles.

stones, of which quantities have fallen, in some places, in lines along their sides, looking like rivers of stones; these are alternated with extensive tracts of marshy ground, descending from the very tops of the mountains, where many large fresh-water ponds are found, from one to two feet deep. The best ground is at the foot of the mountains, and of this there is abundance fit for cultivation, in plains stretching from five to fifteen miles along the margin of the sea. In the southern peninsula there is hardly a rising ground that can be called a hill. Excellent fresh water is found everywhere, and may be procured either by digging, or from the rivulets, which flow from the interior towards the sea, through valleys covered with a rich vegetation.

The Climate on the island is, on the whole, temperate. The temperature never falls belows 26° Fahrenheit in the coldest winter, nor rises above 75° in the hottest summer; its general range is from 30° to 50° in winter, 50° to 75° in summer. The weather is rather unsettled, particularly in winter; but the showers, whether of rain, snow, or hail, are generally of short duration, and their effects are never long visible on the surface of the ground. Thus floods are unknown; snow disappears in few hours, unless on the tops of the mountains; and ice is seldom found above an inch thick. Thunder and lightning are of rare occurrence; fogs are frequent, especially in autumn and spring, but they usually dissipate towards noon. The winter is rather longer than the summer, but the difference is not above a month, and the long warm days of

summer, with occasional showers, produce a rapid vegetation in that season.

The wind blows commonly from the north-west in summer, south-west in winter, and seldom long from the eastward in either season. The finest weather in winter is when the wind draws from the west or north-west, and in summer when it stands at north-west or north-east. A north wind almost always brings rain, especially in summer, and east and south-east winds are constantly accompanied by thick and wet weather. Snow squalls generally come from the south-south-east, south, or south-south-west. Storms are most frequent at the changes of the seasons, and blow commonly from south-south-west to west-south-west; but they seldom last above twenty-four hours.

Minerals.—There are marks of copper ore with some pyrites, and the rocks are chiefly quartz. Ores of different colours are common, and red and gray slate is plentiful, but no mines or metals have been ever discovered.

The soil of East Falkland Island has been found well adapted to cultivation, consisting generally of from six to eight inches of black vegetable mould, below which is either gravel or clay. Wheat and flax were both raised of quality equal, if not superior, to the seed sown, which was procured from Buenos Ayres; and potatoes, cabbage, turnips, and other kinds of vegetables produced largely, and of excellent quality. Fruit trees were not tried, the plants sent from Buenos Ayres having perished before they arrived.

The soil also produces different kinds of vegetables

wild, as celery, cresses, &c., and many other esculent plants, the proper names of which were not known to the settlers, but their palatable taste and valuable anti-scorbutic properties were abundantly ascertained by them. Among others is one which they called the tea-plant, growing close to the ground, and producing a berry of the size of a large pea, white with a tinge of rose-colour, and of exquisite flavour. A decoction of its leaves is a good substitute for tea, whence its name. It is very abundant.

No trees grow on the island, but wood for building was obtained tolerably easily from the adjoining Straits of Magellan. For fuel, besides peat and turf, which are abundant in many places, and may be procured dry out of the penguins' holes, three kinds of bushes are found, called fachinal, matajo, and gruillera. The first of these grows straight, from two to five feet high, and the stem, in proportion to the height, is from half an inch to one inch and a half in diameter: small woods of this are found in all the valleys, and form good cover; it bears no fruit. The second is more abundant in the southern than in the northern part of the island; its trunk is nearly the thickness of a man's arm, very crooked, never higher than three feet, and bears no fruit. The gruillera is the smallest of the three, growing close to the ground, and abundant all over the island; being easily ignited, it was chiefly used as fuel when the people were away from the settlement, and to light the peat fires in the houses. It bears a small dark red berry of the size of a large pea, of an insipid taste.

Herds of wild horned cattle exist on the island,

sufficient to maintain a great many settlers; and wild hogs are abundant in the northern peninsula. Wild horses are also found there of small size, but very hardy, which, when broken in, as some were without difficulty, were found of great service to the settlement. Rabbits are in great numbers, of a large size and fine fur. Foxes, too, are found, but differing considerably from those of Europe, having a thick head and coarse fur; they live chiefly on geese and other fowl, which they catch at night when asleep.

Game is extremely common, especially wild geese and ducks; of the former two kinds were distinguished, the lowland or kelp-geese, and the upland geese; the latter were much superior in flavour, the former being of a fishy taste, living chiefly on muscles, shrimps, and kelp. Both were very tame, and the upland geese were easily domesticated. They are finest eating in autumn, being then plump, in consequence of the abundance at that season of tea-berries, of which they are very fond; the rest of the year they live on the short grass. They have a white neck and breast, with the rest of the body speckled of a fine brown marbled colour. The lowland gander is quite white, and the goose dark, with a speckled breast.

Of ducks there are several kinds. The logger-headed are the largest, and almost of the size of the geese; their flesh is tough and fishy; they cannot fly, and when cut off from the water are easily caught. The next size is also of inferior quality, tough and fishy; but the smaller kinds, which are not larger than young pigeons, are deliciously good, and are

found in large flocks along the rivulets and fresh water ponds. Snipes are found so tame that they were often killed by throwing ramroads at them. In addition to these, a great variety of sea birds frequent the shores, of which the most valuable to sailors and settlers, from the quantity of eggs they deposit, are the gulls and penguins. These birds have their fixed rookeries, to which they resort in numerous flocks every spring; the gulls generally in green places near the shore, or on the small islands in the bay; the penguins chiefly along the steep rocky shores of the sea. The eggs of both are eatable even with relish, after long confinement on board ship, the penguin's being, however, the best, and less strong than those of the gull. So numerous are these eggs, that on one occasion eight men gathered 60,000 in four or five days, and could easily have doubled that number had they stopped a few days longer. Both gulls and penguins will lay six or eight each, if removed, otherwise they only lay two and hatch them. The gulls come first to their hatching places, the penguins a little later.

Fish abounds in all the bays and inlets, especially in spring, when they come to spawn at the mouths of the fresh water rivulets. They generally enter and retire twice every day, at half-flood and half-ebb, and are in such numbers that ten or twelve men could always catch and salt about sixty tons in less than a month. They were usually caught by a sweeping-net, but they also took the hook, being of a kind between the mullet and salmon. Their flavour was excellent, and when salted, they were considered

superior to the cod. Many shiploads might be procured annually.

Of shell-fish there are only muscles and clams; they are very abundant, and easily gathered on the beach at low water.

Seals are found on the island, or rather on the rocks close to it, and hair-seals (sea lions and elephants) abound along its shores. Many black whales have been also caught in its neighbourhood; in consequence of which the island has of late years been much resorted to by fishing vessels, English, American, and French. Of these, eighty-nine touched at it between 1826 and 1831.

East Falkland Island is singularly cut into by the sea, forming various good harbours of easy access for vessels of almost any burthen. A commandant with a few marines and a small vessel manned from the South American squadron should be placed at these (to us particularly) valuable islands.

BOOK IV.

ST. HELENA AND ASCENSION ISLANDS.

LOCALITY—AREA—HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT, CLIMATE, GEOLOGY, AND SOIL—VEGETATION—POPULATION—PRODUCE—REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, SHIPPING, &c.

St. Helena Island, celebrated as the prison and grave of the most extraordinary human being that ever tenanted this earth, is situate in the Southern Atlantic, within the limit of the south east trade winds; in latitude 15° 15′ south, longitude 5° 49′ 45″ west, 1200 miles from the coast of Africa, 2,000 from that of America, and 600 from the Island of Ascension: its area being 30,300 acres, its extreme length being $10\frac{1}{2}$ miles, its breadth $6\frac{3}{4}$, and its circumference about 28 miles.

History.—St. Helena was discovered by the Portuguese navigator, Juan De Nova Castella, on

the 21st May, 1502, and named by him, in honour of the day of its discovery, after *Saint Helena.*

When first visited, the island was uninhabited, covered by one entire forest, and its shores abounding with turtles, seals, sea-lions, and various sorts of wild fowl; its settlement, and early improvement in 1513, are attributed to the debarkation of a Portuguese nobleman, who had been mutilated by Albuquerque for crime committed in India, and sent home in disgrace. This gentleman, Fernandez Lopez by name, prevailed on the captain to set him on shore, in preference to the life of ignominy he was destined to lead in Portugal, and his wishes being complied with, and abundant supplies forwarded to him by his commiserating friends, he quickly brought some spots under cultivation, and imported hogs, goats, domestic poultry, partridges, and wild fowl, besides various sorts of fruits and vegetables, all of which increased and throve exceedingly, such as figs, oranges, lemons, peach-trees, &c. Fernandez was removed from his voluntary exile by orders of the Portuguese government in about four years, and the next inhabitants appear to have been four slaves of different sexes, who escaped from a ship, and multiplied to the number of 20; these people subsisted on the live stock and fruits which had increased prodigiously; but the Portuguese being jealous of their consuming what was required for the refreshment of the ships, which touched here on their passage from India, finally succeeded in hunting them out, and destroying them. Tavernier informs us that a Franciscan friar had also taken up his abode

on the island and led an austere life for 14 years, when he died; though other accounts say, he was removed in consequence of the great destruction he committed among the goats, for the sake of trafficking in their skins.

The Portuguese mariners preserved the secret of the existence of St. Helena from other nations until 1588, when it was discovered by Capt. Cavendish, on his return from a circumnavigating voyage. He gives the state of the island very circumstantially, from which it appears, that the Portuguese had built a town and a church: he found abundance of goats, pigs, and poultry, with game, wild fowl, and various kinds of fruits and vegetables. The settlement was afterwards frequently visited by English, Dutch, Spanish, and Portuguese ships; the salubrity of air, and the abundance of fresh provisions invigorating their exhausted crews.

It sometimes happened that ships of nations at war with each other visited St. Helena at the same time—accordingly we have accounts of various sea fights between the Dutch and Spaniards at the anchorage, who are, moreover, accused of wantonly destroying the plantations, lest succeeding visitors should profit by the supplies which had proved so beneficial to them. From all these causes the island was deserted by the Portuguese, when they acquired possession of settlements on the eastern shores of Africa, and for some time continued desolate, owing to the wanton excesses which had been committed: however, about the year 1643, two Portuguese vessels being wrecked, their crews got safe to land, and

once more stocked the island with cattle, goats, hogs, poultry, &c. In 1645 the Dutch took formal possession of St. Helena, and established a colony; but they also abandoned it, when settling at the Cape of Good Hope in 1651.

The homeward bound English East India fleet calling at the island at this period, took possession of St. Helena, and the East India Company obtained a charter for its possession from Charles II. ten years after. Under the superintendence in 1658 of Capt. Dutton, the first English Governor, a fort was erected, and called Fort James, in compliment to the Duke of York, the king's brother. Settlers were encouraged to emigrate thither, and slaves were imported from Madagascar to work in the plantations. It is reported to have been captured by the Dutch in 1665, but of this event the accounts are vague and doubtful, and the writer of Rennefort's voyage, who visited the island in 1666, makes no mention of such occurrence, but eulogizes Governor Stringer, and his family, for the attentions he received, and describes the settlement as thriving, being then composed of about 50 Englishmen, 20 women, and some negroes. Its population was shortly after increased by many, who had been reduced by the great fire of London, seeking relief in the island.

From 1658 until 1672 various laws and regulations were made by the Company at home, or the Governors of the island, of whom there appears to have been, viz.—Dutton, Stringer, Swallow, Coney, Bennett and Beale: in the latter part of 1672, the

Dutch, through the treachery of a planter, succeeded in landing in the night 500 men from an expedition which had been repulsed the same day; the fort being thus attacked in the rear, the Governor thought prudent to abandon it, and retired, with his garrison and principal effects, on board some ships in the roads, taking, however, the precaution of placing a sloop to cruise to windward of St. Helena to warn British vessels of its capture, and a squadron arriving soon after (in May, 1673), under Captain Munden, he succeeded in recapturing the island, and, by keeping the Dutch flag flying after he got possession of the forts, decoyed six Dutch East Indiamen, as well as a ship from Europe, having a Governor and reinforcements for the garrison on board, into the roads where they were captured. Having formed a British garrison by detachments from the ships, Captain Munden sailed for England with his prizes, and was knighted.

The king having renewed the charter of the East India Company, they lost no time in sending out reinforcements to St. Helena—appointed Capt. G. Field, governor, with a council of four to assist him, and held out great encouragement for the old settlers to remain, and also to induce new ones to repair thither. The Company at home, and the Governor of the island, now passed some local laws for the allotment of land, and the management of the plantations, and assigned the service which each individual was bound to perform for the defence of the settlement when called upon: the number of soldiers was shortly afterwards reduced to 50, and several English

settlers having arrived a militia was organized, to whom the defence of the island was to be principally entrusted. Fortifications were raised, and lines drawn for the security of the town, which was required to be built on a preconcerted plan; but, upwards of a century elapsed before advantage was taken of placing cannon on the heights, which were only occupied for look-out stations.

In 1676, Dr. Halley, the celebrated astronomer, arrived at St. Helena for the purpose of completing some celestial observations; his instruments were erected on the hill which now bears his name, when he observed the transit of Mercury over the sun's disc.

Many taxes having been imposed on the settlers, and particularly an impost laid on the wood required to distil spirits from potatoes, discontent began again to assume a formidable aspect, and a mutinous disposition spreading amongst the soldiers, it broke out at various times in open rebellion on various pretences, on many of which occasions blood was shed; in 1684, two of the mutineers were hanged, and others transported, as an example to the rest: this did not, however, check the disturbances, for constant insurrections occurred, in which more than one of the Governors perished, until at length in 1700, all the spirit-stills were suppressed by order from England, and by the vigorous measures of Governor Roberts, from 1708 to 1714, the island was tranquillized.

Various plants, shrubs, fruit, and timber trees, were now introduced; but only the apple, mulberry, and peach, have become established, although it is

certain the cocoa nut, cypress, and others, may be propagated with a little attention. The Scotch fir and spruce were introduced about the year 1749, also acorns from which timber has been produced, which now measures from 9 to 11 feet in circumference, in the most sheltered parts of the island, although they do not succeed when exposed to the trade winds.

Provisions became so plentiful that a clause was inserted in the charter party of the Company's ships, obliging them to purchase a certain quantity of beef, at 16s. per cwt.

Governor Brooke, who succeeded Corneille in 1787, by his firm conduct and judicious arrangements, soon subdued the mutinous disposition hitherto so prevalent; and during his government (from 1787 to 1800) St. Helena was made a depôt for training recruits for the Company's army in India, to the number of upwards of 12,000 soldiers. Brooke also improved the buildings, and strengthened the fortifications, established a code of signals, and rendered the settlement extremely valuable at the commencement of war with the Dutch in 1795; by his energetic conduct in fitting out an expedition destined to surprise the Cape, but that object having been anticipated from home, the St. Helena squadron was afterwards employed in capturing the Dutch homeward-bound Indiamen.

Governor Brooke was succeeded by Col. Patten, in 1801-2, who carried on the plans of his predecessor, and greatly improved the fortifications of the place, particularly in rendering the guns on the heights more effective, and also in encouraging a

better mode of agriculture. In 1807, the island was visited with a calamity which had nearly destroyed the whole population—a most inveterate species of the measels was introduced by the homeward-bound fleet from the Cape, so fatal in its effects that, besides prostrating the strength of nearly the whole population, so as to render them almost incapable of assisting each other, it carried off in two months nearly 200 persons. The visitation of this calamity alarmed the inhabitants respecting the small pox, which, although it had appeared, or had been introduced by persons from England or the Cape, had never proved infectious, and it was supposed that something existed in the climate of St. Helena inimical to its contagiousness. To allay their apprehensions the Governor took measures to introduce vaccination, and also to appoint a gentleman as vaccinating surgeon, and we believe no case of small pox has since been known. In 1807, Governor Patten being obliged to retire to England, on account of ill health, was succeeded the following year by Governor Beatson—to whose history of the island I am indebted for much information.

In May, 1810, 50 Chinese labourers were imported into St. Helena, and were found so useful, that shortly afterwards 150 more were obtained: some husbandmen from England were also sent out with a view to improving the agriculture of the settlement; this produced a beneficial effect in extending greatly the amount of land under cultivation. Still, owing to some measures ordered by the government at home, the price of provisions was

enhanced greatly—salt provisions from the Company's stores, which in 1810 were delivered at 4*d.* per lb. reaching 13*d.* in 1813, which, with the strict abolition of the importation, or manufacture of ardent spirits, gave rise to discontent. A brewery was therefore established, and cheap wines imported from the Cape in abundance, and served out in rations at 6*d.* per pint. At the close of 1811 these discontents broke out into open mutiny, as had several times before been the case; by the firm conduct of the Governor, however, it was speedily suppressed, nine of the ringleaders brought to summary Court Martial, condemned, and six of them executed, after which order was restored, and the worst characters sent off the island.

In 1813, Governor Beatson was superseded, at his own request, by Colonel Mark Wilks, but he remained for several months to induct his successor in the plans he had in progress for the improvement of the settlement.

In 1815, it was resolved to appropriate St. Helena as a prison for Napoleon Buonaparte,—on the 15th Oct. 1815, he arrived in the island in his Majesty's ship Northumberland, and continued there a prisoner at large until his death, on the 6th May, 1821. It would be foreign to my purpose, and beyond my limits to enter into any disquisition on the question of the imprisonment of Napoleon at St. Helena; whether England had a moral right to detain him there is, by no means, a settled point; still less so is the far more important question, whether Napoleon's actions were calculated to benefit, or to injure man-

kind ;—granted, even, that Napoleon was a despot: let it, however, be remembered, that he warred against tyrants who endeavoured to hold millions in bondage to the few, or against imbeciles who desired to retain the mass of their fellow-beings in slavish subjection to alleged hereditary rights ;—if he be accused of usurping sovereign power, let those who can appreciate his genius reflect, that he was endowed with a capacity of soul for which this world was too limited, and that his towering mind could acknowledge no chief; nor let any man of talent forget that moral, mental, physical energy was never exhibited before Napoleon in vain—he elicited, encouraged, rewarded the brave, the high-spirited, the eloquent, and the studious; his presence was a stimulus to some of the greatest enterprises that man has ever undertaken, and thousands of gallant heroes cheerfully shed their precious blood in the hope of receiving the approving smile of Napoleon :—yet, more, let not the truly British patriot forget that, Napoleon too idolized his country; his very existence was centered in extending the glory and happiness of his adored France, whom he cherished as the most ardent lover does the first object of his choice. I am not blind to the faults of Napoleon, they were many, and deep ;—he would have been more or less than mortal were it otherwise. I look upon his meteoric career as one of those extraordinary dispensations of Providence, whose purport is, to us, inscrutable; and when I contemplate the lofty pinnacle of grandeur on which he was exalted—with kings, princes, and nobles for his servitors—thrones

for his gifts—and empires for his sway,—when I contrast this summit of Napoleon's earthly glory with his narrow and cheerless prison-house, in the midst of the Atlantic—when I compare the gorgeous Tuilleries with the silent, nameless, and desolate charnel-vault of St. Helena—I witness the most forcible illustration of the instability of mere human greatness that ever was presented for the guidance of mankind, and I read in it a conclusive confirmation of those striking lessons with which the page of scripture abounds—which teach that the race is not to the swift, nor the battle to the strong, and that he who giveth not praise and glory to Him to whom praise and glory are alone due, is like unto a reed shaken by every blast of wind,—or, as the flower of the field, which groweth up and is cut down, and no man knoweth its place. Reader, excuse this digression, which I could not well avoid, and return with me unto a dry detail of facts which, though less congenial to my mind, is of far more utility to the object I have in view—the welfare of my country.

During the residence of Napoleon on St. Helena, in order to prevent his escape [1], a large garrison of

[1] Several projects were made to carry off Napoleon from St. Helena. The following (as it appears to me) impracticable scheme was devised by Johnson, the smuggler, who says—'I constructed two submarine vessels, the Eagle and Etna. The Eagle was of the burthen of 114 tons, 84 feet in length, and 18 feet beam, propelled by two steam-engines of 40 horse power. The Etna, the smaller ship, was 40 feet long, and 10 feet beam; burthen 23 tons. These two vessels would be propelled, the large one with two engines of 20 horse power

king's troops, and a considerable squadron was maintained at the island, which the East India Company

each, the small one with one engine of 10 horse power, high pressure, well arranged, equipped with warlike stores, and 30 well-chosen seamen, with four engineers. They were also to take 20 torpedos, a number equal to the destruction of 20 ships, ready for action in case of meeting with any opposition from the ships of war on the station. These two ships were to be stationed at a convenient distance from the rock (at St. Helena), abreast of Longwood House, the highest point of the island, being 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, and, because deemed inaccessible, of course unsuspected. All the accessible points were well fortified and guarded. In this position the two vessels were to lay at anchor, at a cable's length from each other, the smaller one close to the rock, well fortified with cork fenders, in order to guard against any injury which might be apprehended from the friction of beating against the rock, which could at all times be prevented by hauling off or on, as occasion required. This smaller ship would be provided with a mechanical chair, capable of containing one person on the seat, and a standing foot-board at the back, so that the person at the back could regulate the ascent or descent at pleasure. Attached to this chair would be a patent whale-line, 2,050 feet long, with all the necessary apparatus ready when called for. Thus far arranged, the vessels were to remain submerged during the day, and at night approach the surface. Every thing being perfectly in order, I should then go on shore, provided with some other small articles, such as a ball of strong twine, an iron bolt with a block, which I would sink into the ground at the top of the rock, opposite Longwood House, and abreast of the submarine ships. I should then obtain my introduction to his Imperial Majesty, and communicate my plan. The residence of the Emperor being surrounded by a chevaux-de-frise, and the stables being outside, the servants only had access to the house. I proposed that the coachman should go into the house, at a certain hour

placed under the government of the Crown: in 1822, the whole of the king's troops were removed and St.

which should be fixed, and that his Majesty should be provided with a similar livery, as well as myself, the one in the character of a coachman, the other as a groom; and that, thus disguised, we should pass into the coach-house, and there remain, unnoticed and unperceived. We should then watch our opportunity, to avoid the eye of the frigate guard, who seldom looked out in the direction of the highest point in the Island; and on our arriving at the spot where our blocks, &c. were deposited, I should make fast one end of my ball of twine to the ring, and heave the ball down to my confidential men, then on the look-out below, who would make the other end fast to the fall belonging to the mechanical chair, by which means I should be able to haul up the end of the fall, which I should run through the block, and then haul up the mechanical chair to the top. I should then place his Majesty in the chair, while I took my station at the back, and lowered away with a corresponding weight on the other side, until we arrived safe at the bottom. Embarked on board the Etna, into which we should have lowered, as it lay close under the rock, I should then cast off our moorings, and haul alongside the Eagle, and remain there during the day; in the evening prepare our steam, and get under weigh as soon as it became dark. In this position, I should propel by steam until I had given the island a good berth, and then ship our mast and make sail, steering for the United States. I calculated that no hostile ship or ships could impede our progress, so as to offer any very serious obstruction, as, in the event of an attack, I should haul our sails and strike yards and masts, which would only occupy about 40 minutes, and then submerge. Under water we should await the approach of the enemy, and then, by the aid of the little Etna, attaching the torpedo to her bottom, effect her destruction in 15 minutes. On my arrival at a secure and convenient spot on the coast of the United States, I should communicate with his Majesty's Government, through the medium of my friend and patron, the ever-to-be-lamented

Helena reverted to the possession of the East India Company.

In March, 1823, Brigadier General Walker arrived from England as governor: under his administration many judicious plans for the improvement of the settlement were persevered in, particularly the abolition of slavery (previously begun), the establishment of schools, &c.; he also encouraged agricultural societies and fairs, giving prizes for the best cattle, ploughing, and crops. The houses which had been occupied by Buonaparte and his staff were converted into offices for the Company's farm at Longwood[1], and the amount of cultivated land extended. He also increased the supply of water for shipping, by bringing the contents of another spring to the reservoir, by which means there is now procurable 300 tons of pure water in the twenty-four hours, which can be further increased if necessary. St. Helena remained as the property of the East India Company until the non-renewal of the Company's commercial charter

Duke of York, to negociate for a more suitable and honourable asylum for his Imperial Majesty. Should my negociations, as I anticipated, fail, I should then address his Imperial Majesty, and propose his return to France, where he would meet with a very favourable reception. The whole of the negociations were carried on through O'Meara. The vessels were laid down to be coppered, when news arrived of the exile's death.'

[Johnson forgot to state how he was to ascend the inaccessible precipice.]

[1] When I visited them in 1830, Napoleon's bed-room was a cattle-stall, and sheep and goats sheltered themselves in the ex-emperor's saloon.

in 1833, when the Directors declined to continue burthened with the expense of the island, which it had retained solely for the benefit and protection of its shipping; St. Helena is now, therefore, one of the crown colonies; Commissioners have been sent out to make the necessary inquiries and alterations for the transfer—the East India Company's troops, heretofore garrisoning the forts, will be removed to India, and their place occupied by the head-quarters of the 60th rifles, with a governor appointed by the Queen.

[1] Chronological account of Governors of St. Helena:—Sir Richard Munden and Captain R. Kegwin, 1673; Captain G. Field, 1674; Major J. Blackmore, 1678; Captain J. Johnson, 1690; Captain R. Keelinge, 1693; Captain S. Poirier, 1697; Captain T. Goodwin, 1707; Captain J. Roberts, 1708; Captain B. Boucher, 1711; Captain M. Bazett, (actg.) Captain J. Pyke, 1714; E. Johnson, Esq. 1719; E. Byfield, (actg.); Captain J. Smith, 1723; Captain J. Pyke, 1731; J. Goodwin, Esq. 1738; D. Crisp, 1739; R. Jenkins, Esq. 1740; Major T. Lambert, 1741; G. G. Powel, Esq. 1742; Col. D. Dunbar, 1743; C. Hutchinson, Esq. 1747; J. Skottowe, Esq. 1764; D. Corneille, Esq. 1782; Colonel R. Brooke, 1787; Lieutenant Colonel F. Robson, 1801; Colonel R. Patten, 1802; Lieutenant Colonel W. Lane, 1807; Major General A. Beatson, 1808; Colonel M. Wilks, 1813; Lieutenant General Sir Hudson Lowe, 1816; T. H. Brooke, Esq. (actg.) 1821; Brigadier General A. Walker, 1823; T. H. Brooke, Esq. (2nd actg.) 1828; Brigadier General C. Dallas, 1828.

Physical Aspect.—The island of St. Helena, when first seen at sea, presents the appearance of a small barren rock, nearly perpendicular on its northern side, but gradually shelving to the south. On approaching, its eminences appear more broken, and the central ones covered with verdure; on a near

approach this view is again shut out by the rugged and barren appearance of the shore, which is almost perpendicular, forming a girdle of inaccessible precipices of basaltic rocks, some of them rent to the bases, exhibiting extensive chasms, and all the most fantastic shapes that can be imagined. On rounding Munden's Point to the only anchorage that exists, James' Valley Bay on the north-west, or leeward side of the island, the eye is suddenly relieved by a view of the town and fortifications. James' Town is situate in a narrow valley between two lofty mountains, and presents a pleasant and refreshing appearance, from the trees being generally in full leaf—a species of the banian of India, called in Bengal the peepul tree.

There is good anchorage in from eight to twenty-five fathoms; the tide rising to the height of five feet at times; the surf upon the shore is generally strong, but about Christmas tremendous. The principal inlets by which the island can be approached are Lemon Valley, James' Town, and Rupert's Bay on the north-west side, and Sandy Bay on the south-east; all these, however, are strongly fortified. Even the small ravines, where it might be possible to effect a landing, are also fortified.

Throughout the whole length of the island there are only two plains, the largest that of Longwood, comprising 1,500 acres of fertile land, sloping to the south-west. The island is divided by a ridge of hills, running nearly east and west, but bending in a curved direction to the south, at each extremity, and from this chain innumerable valleys and ridges

branch off, generally at right angles. The highest point of land in the island is Diana's Peak, which rises 2,700 feet above the level of the sea, and is situated towards the eastern extremity. From the summit of this peak the whole island lies under the view, no point intercepting the horizon : on the same ridge are Cuckold's Point, 2,672 feet, and Halley's Mount, 2,467 feet, which from their extreme altitude, are often enveloped in clouds. The other remarkable eminences, the altitude of which have been ascertained by Major Rennell, are Flag Staff, 2,272, and Barnscliff, 2,215 feet, nearer the coast and overhanging the sea ; Alarm House, 1,260 feet, in the centre of the island ; High Knoll, 1,903 feet, to the southward of Ladder Hill, and the official country residence of the Governor, Longwood House, 1,762 do. ; most of the central eminences are covered with timber and shrubs, consisting of the cabbage tree, redwood, stringwood, dogwood, &c., and formerly the greenwood was to be found in great abundance, but, at present, few of these trees are to be seen, except about 1,500 acres of an irregular forest at Longwood, preserved by order of the East India Company.

St. Helena is plentifully watered by clear and wholesome springs, abundant in every direction : those issuing from the sides of the hills frequently form picturesque cascades. Roads have been formed in a zig-zag direction, with incredible labour, which now give easy access to the interior of the island. For the space of a couple of miles from James Town, all appears barren, but the sight is soon gratified by the appearance of verdure, with wooded hills, culti-

vated lawns and valleys, and handsome country residences. Many beautiful views are obtained from the summits: besides the indigenous plants of the island, the coffee of Arabia, the banian and bamboo of India, the aloe of Africa, and the apple, peach, and mulberry of Europe are found to thrive in the cultivated inclosures. At Longwood there is about 1500 acres of excellent meadow land, capable of great fertility when supplied with water. From Sandy Bay the view is also pleasing, the country consisting of alternate ridges and valleys, converging towards the sea, amongst which are interspersed the houses and plantations of the settlers, the prospect closing with the distant ocean.

Many of the hills are naked to the summit; occasionally the sides are partially clothed with a stunted brushwood (as is the case in the lonesome and desolate looking valley where Napoleon's grave is situate [1]),

[1] The temperament of Napoleon is evinced in the melancholy-looking spot chosen by himself as his last resting place. The valley is small, verdant, and completely shut out (except by one winding path) from the other parts of the island by two towering, brown, and barren mountains, leaving no other object visible, save the purple ether and the light fleecy clouds which hover about like aërial messengers. The appearance which the clouds assume here is extremely beautiful and singular, as the following anecdote will evince, In 1830, I was a passenger in a French ship from India, bound for Havre de Grace. We had suffered severe gales off the Cape, and being without a good chronometer, lost our reckoning, and were cruising about for several foggy days, looking for St. Helena. During this time, a very large bird, resembling an eagle, but which no one had seen any thing like, kept hovering about

making the scene more dreary. Yet there are many sweet spots on this rock of the ocean, and those who have been born in St. Helena admire its beauties, and are strongly attached to their wild-looking and rugged home.

THE CLIMATE of this island is not ill adapted to the European constitution; indeed it has been found congenial to the crews of vessels that have been kept for a long space of time on salt provisions, and without vegetables. The thermometer seldom rises above 80° in James Town, and the heat is only excessive when it is reflected from the sides of the valley in calm weather; in the interior of the island the temperature is more even, never so cold as in England, and scarcely so hot. The average temperature

our ship. Several of the French officers endeavoured to shoot it; but, although they were excellent shots, and the bird came close to us, in a steady flight, it escaped injury. On the third day, while anxiously looking out at noon, I perceived in the clouds the exact figure of an eagle, in a half-inclined flying attitude, the fleecy wings beautifully tinged with the hidden sun's rays. Under the influence of the thoughts then passing in my mind, I involuntarily exclaimed, '*Voilà l'esprit de Napoleon!*' The idea was electric to the Frenchmen around me; and an old officer of Napoleon's guard threw himself on his knees, in the attitude of prayer. Never shall I forget the countenances of the young and old, as they soon after beheld the eagle-like cloud slowly resolve itself into thin air; while beneath, and close to our bark, the lofty peaks of St. Helena frowned in dark and gloomy grandeur. On looking round, the bird which, for three days, had hovered about us, (and but a few moments before visible) was no where to be seen, and we proceeded beneath the embattled cliffs in thoughtful silence.

throughout the whole year has been found to be at Longwood from 56 to 68, at James Town from 66 to 78, and at Plantation House from 61 to 73 Fahrenheit.

State of the Thermometer (Farenheit) at Deadwood, St. Helena, taken by Dr. Short, physician to the forces, from 1st September, 1820, to 31st August, 1822.

Months.	Range.			Monthly Average of Thermometer.	State of the Wind.
	Max.	Med.	Min.		
January	76	70	68	71⅓	South-east.
February	76	70	67	71	Ditto.
March	76	71	67	71⅓	Ditto.
April	74	70	66	70	Ditto.
May	72	68	64	68	Ditto.
June	70	65	57	64	Dito; 1 day west.
July	71	66	57	64⅔	Ditto ditto.
August	68	64	62	64⅔	Ditto.
September	66	64	62	64	Ditto.
October	68	65	62	65	Ditto.
November	72	66	61	66⅓	Ditto; 6 days west.
December	72	66	61	66⅓	Ditto.
Yearly average	71	67	62		

Thunder and lightning are rare, and the rains, which fall most abundantly in February, are for the other months more regular than in other tropical situations. The higher peaks and their vicinity from their approximation to the clouds, are generally visited with a shower daily, and cloudy days are more frequent than scorching sunny ones. The atmosphere is, however, generally so clear that a vessel may be descried at a distance of sixty miles.

Geology and Soil.—St. Helena is probably of volcanic origin, perhaps like the Mauritius, the re-

sult of a submarine convulsion; or it is the lofty peak of some vast range of mountains whose base is beneath the ocean. Limestone is plentiful in some situations, as well as iron ore, but the scarcity of fuel prevents the latter being made available. There have been appearances of gold and copper, but not to the extent to encourage mining. There is a substance called terra puzzolana, found in considerable quantities, which in conjunction with lime makes an excellent cement, and is therefore used in forming aqueducts, as it sets hard, and is retentive of water, though subject to become speedily foul by vegetable substances adhering to its surface.

THE VEGETABLE KINGDOM is not much varied. A vast quantity of furze, produced from seed originally brought from England covers the sides of the interior hills; there are three kinds of gum tree, all evergreens and indigenous,—the common, the bastard, and the dwarf; all of them emit an aromatic gum, which renders the wood pleasant as fuel, for which purpose it is used, and from the trunks of the trees the inhabitants obtain in abundance a sweet fluid which they call toddy. The other native timber or shrubs are dog-wood, red-wood or ebony, string-wood and the cabbage tree, of which the last is used in building. The oak, pinaster, and cypress thrive very well where they have been planted. The myrtle grows to the height of thirty feet, and the cotton tree flourishes to perfection. The fern is extremely beautiful, growing to the height of twenty feet, with leaves five feet in length. There is a shrub which has been named *sapphire,* which the natives burn in

large quantities, its ashes producing an alkali for the manufacture of soap. All sorts of grasses thrive well; the wire grass or dwarf being the most abundant; it is nutritious and suffers little from drought. Lucerne has also been successfully introduced: in short the soil is favourable to the production of any European plant if sheltered from the sea.

Most kinds of tropical or European fruits ripen, more particularly in the sheltered valleys. Vines, oranges, citrons, lemons, figs, pomegranates, mulberries, tamarinds, mangoes, cocoa-nuts, sugar cane, pine apples, &c. thrive well: apples have succeeded tolerably, but the climate is not congenial to cherries, currants, or gooseberries. The common blackberry increased to such an extent after its introduction in 1780, as to cause an order for its extirpation. Three successive crops of potatoes are often produced in the year, and garden vegetables, such as cabbages, beans, peas, &c. are raised on every farm in great abundance. As the principal object of the settlement is to provide fresh meat and vegetables for the refreshment of the homeward bound ships, the cultivation of corn and pulse has not been encouraged, neither is the climate congenial to their production on account of droughts. The provisions exported and brought to market in James Town, and solely grown on the island during the last five years, were—

Potatoes. bags, *exported* 7650, *consumed* 1960; cabbages, *ex.* 7470, *c.* 16250; vegetables, bunches, *ex.* 33,800, *c.* 42,030; pumpkins, *ex.* 3800, *c.* 570; hay, cwts. *ex.* 380, *c.* 2880; fowls, *ex.* 27,700, *c.* 20,240; ducks, *ex.* 4,100, *c.* 4,000; bullocks, *ex.*

260, *c*. 560; calves, *ex*. 30, *c*. 460; sheep, *ex*. 220, *c*. 1230; pigs, *ex*. 870, *c*. 390; the total value of the exports of the above was 20,400*l*. of the consumption, 24,500*l*.

Animals.—Cattle produced from English stock are not numerous, owing to the great demand of passing ships; poultry is plentiful and well tasted; and in some parts of the island rabbits abound. The stock in the island consists of horses 300, horned cattle 1500, sheep and goats 3000.

Birds.—The shores abound with many varieties of sea fowl, which breed amongst the cliffs. Pheasants, partridges, and guinea fowls, being strictly preserved, are at this time numerous; as are also the Java sparrows, which cause great destruction to the farmers' crops, canary birds and red linnets, the latter build two nests, in the upper one of which the male bird sits and serenades the female in her incubation.

Fish are numerous, and more than seventy different kinds have been caught on the coast. Amongst the most prized are the coal fish, which is very delicate but scarce: those commonly taken are jacks, congers, soldiers, mackarel, albicore, bulls' eyes, &c. When lying in St. Helena roadstead, I have pulled up fish so fast as to be weary in catching them: in general they are excellent eating. Whales are sometimes taken when they approach the roads. The flying fish often drop on the rocks when pursued by the dolphin, &c. In December and March turtle are frequently taken, and shell fish are very abundant, particularly the rock oyster.

The number of fish caught near the island during

the last five years were as follow:—mackarel, 115,300; bulls' eyes, 2500; jacks, 35,900; congers, 24,000; old wives, 72,000; soldiers, 8,400; sandspeer, 6000; cavelliers, 6000; deep-water bulls' eyes, 3520; yellow-tail, 350, coal fish, 30; cod-fish, 40; silver fish, 7050; stumps, 4600; long-legs, 35; bear fish, 35; turtle, 40; five fingers, 490; sword fish, 80 (weighing 10 to 80 lbs. each); barracootta, 50; albicore, 8300 (10 to 80 lbs).

THE POPULATION is estimated at 5000, of whom about 2200 are whites, and the remainder either people of colour, Chinese, or Africans, whom the East India Company's government have for several years liberally and generously aided to purchase their freedom. The total number of paupers in the island is twenty-eight, principally old and blind people. Those who are born in the island evince considerable quickness and talent. The baptisms and burials at St. Helena, from the 30th September, 1820, to the 30th September, 1833, were as follow:—

	Bps.	Brs.		Bps.	Brs.		Bps.	Brs.
1821	140	90	1826	129	83	1831	239	73
1822	113	70	1827	180	99	1832	229	89
1823	118	57	1828	159	96	1833	201	70
1824	101	90	1829	156	65			
1825	154	125	1830	204	68			

Total baptisms, 2123—burials, 1076.

The bill of mortality, ending December, 1833, was 80; of whom 16 died under 1 year; 5 under 5 years; 5 under 10 years; 4 from 10 to 20; 23 from 20 to 40; 18 from 40 to 70; and 9 above 70 years of age.

Government.—During the East India Company's sway, the chief authority was vested in a governor, aided by a council, composed of the principal and senior civic servants, how it will in future stand is not yet known.

The Military has hitherto been composed of one regiment of European troops, and a strong artillery, in the service of the East India Company. The head quarters of the 2nd battalion 60th Rifles will, I hear, form the new garrison, with, I suppose, a detachment of the Royal Artillery. The island is so well fortified that properly defended it may be considered impregnable. It has forty-three stations, protected by mounted ordnance.

The guns mounted and ready for action are,—brass mortars, howitzers, and guns, 9 three-tenths inch mortar, 1; 8 inch howitzers, 2; 5½ ditto, 8; 6 pounders, 14; 3 ditto, 10.—*Iron*, 13 inch mortar, 8; 8 inch ditto, 2; 32 pounders, 19; 24 ditto, 16; 18 ditto, 36; 12 ditto, 35; 9 ditto, 11; 6 ditto, 17; 4 ditto, 2; 3 ditto, 4; swivels, 3; *Carronades*, 68 pounders, 4; 24 ditto, 22; 18 ditto, 24; 12 ditto, 1.

Revenue and Expenditure.—Hitherto the charge for St. Helena has been large, unless it be considered in the important view of an invaluable naval station. The revenue derived from a few licenses and fines is small, but increasing in amount. The following is a

Statement of the Revenue and Charges of St. Helena.

Years.	CHARGES.				Revenues—viz. Rents, Licenses, and Fines.	Net Charge.
	Civil.	Military.	Buildings and Fortifications.	Total Charges.		
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1809-10	12503	69926	2824	85253	1432	83821
1810-11	14626	64783	3240	82649	1429	81220
1811-12	17452	61845	3989	83286	1432	81854
1812-13	17272	62880	4536	84688	1696	82992
1813-14	20209	70701	6029	96939	1685	95254
1814-15	26278	66015	1666	93959	1872	92087
1815-16	23623	178289	2207	204119*	2371	201748
1816-17	49075	222225	11482	282782*	3038	279744
1817-18	49634	192498	14875	257007*	1438	255569
1818-19	61411	215870	19504	296785*	2693	294092
1819-20	33019	128562	7872	169453*	175	169278
1820-21	54641	218774	2139	275554*	989	274565
1821-22	47314	157527	5242	210083*	2045	208038
1822-23	29475	87083	5395	121953	1860	120093
1823-24	35122	77581	3494	116197	3929	112268
1824-25	28432	77538	5295	111265	1816	109449
1825-26	28319	80616	4493	113428	3015	110413
1826-27	27172	87297	3974	118443	3943	114500
1827-28	46808	75172	1989	123969	3398	120571
1828-29	44507	69072	2058	115637	2583	113654
1829-30†	33288	60359	957	94608	1600	93004
1830-31	28378	56324	1721	86423	379	86044
1831-32	28285	56356	1842	86483	3260	83223
1832-33	28581	58020	1734	88335	3050	85285
1833-34	26398	56287	1721	84406	2931	81475

* The Company have since been repaid by Her Majesty's Government a part of these charges, credit for the amount having been allowed to them in their account with Government, settled by the Act 3d Geo. IV. c. 93.

† Add to this sundry expenses paid in England—1829-30, 11,389*l.*—1830-31, 14-213*l.*—1831-32, 10,929*l.*—1832-33, 10,268*l.*—1833-34, 10,166*l.*

Number of vessels that received supplies at the island in 1833: British, 156 ships, 58 barques, 79 brigs, and 7 schooners, total 300; tonnage 131,974, guns 1666, men 11,459; American vessels 93, tonnage 26,275, guns 158, men 1801; *French* 51.

tonnage 17,478, guns 139, men 1191; *Dutch* 23, tonnage 9995, guns 142, men 589; *Portuguese* 3, tonnage 883, guns 14, men 71; *Swedish* 2, tonnage 608, guns 10, men 40; *German* 2, tonnage 541, guns 8, men 31; *Danish* 1, tonnage 145, men 14. Total, vessels 475, tonnage 187,899, guns 2134, men 15,196; and 162 vessels sighted the island. Of British vessels touching at St. Helena 7 were from Algoa Bay, 9 Batavia, 42 Bombay, 69 Calcutta, 30 Cape of Good Hope, 7 Ceylon, 23 China, 5 London, 17 Madras, 9 Manilla, 51 Mauritius, 2 New South Wales, 1 Rio Janeiro, 14 Singapore, 2 Van Diemen's Land, and 12 from whaling voyages; of the above 300 vessels, 189 were bound to London, and 51 to Liverpool, the remainder to different ports in the United Kingdom. If we value the property vested and embarked in 131,974 tons of British shipping at 30*l.* pound per ton, we shall have nearly *four millions* annually (3,959,220*l.*) indebted for its better security to our possession of St. Helena.

Prices of stock and provisions at St. Helena, in 1834:—horned cattle, from England, 15*l.* to 20*l.*; from the Cape of Good Hope, 7*l.* 10*s.* to 10*l.*; sheep, Cape, 1*l.*; goats, ditto 10*s.*; pigs, weighing 100lbs 1*l.* 10*s.*; turkeys 10*s.*; geese, 7*s.*; fowls, 2*s.*; horses, 20*l.*; flour per lb. 2½*d.*; biscuits, 112lbs. 1*l.* English; 16*s.* Cape; oats, per muid, Cape, 12*s.* 6*d.*; barley, ditto, 11*s.* 6*d.*; hops, pocket, 30*s.*; malt, per hogshead, 4*l.* 10*s.*; rice, bag of 165lbs. 12*s.*; English salt, per lb. 1*d.*; salt fish, per cwt. 1*l.*; fresh beef, mutton, &c. 6*d.* to 4*d.* per lb.; ditto, salt ditto, 3*d.* to 4*d.*; sugar, 2*d.* to 3*d.* per lb.; coffee, 5*d.* to 8*d.*; tea, 1*s.* 3*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb.; wine, Cape, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* per gallon; foreign wine, 12*s.* to 1*l.* per dozen; brandy and gin, 1*l*.per gallon; English beer, 9*s.* per dozen; Island ditto, 2*s.* per gallon; servants' wages, 10*s.* to 15*s.* per month with board, or 1*s.* 6*d.* per day without board; women, 10*s.* to 20*s.* per month, with food.

The foregoing will convey a sufficiently distinct idea of St. Helena, which as a maritime station is of incalculable value to a commercial nation: it is not the barren rock that has been supposed, nor are

there wanting the finer elements of social life; slavery has been for several years in the course of abolition; public schools have been established (eight schools, with about 500 children); an excellent observatory, provided with every scientific instrument; and every effort made to promote religious instruction. As a watering and refreshing station for our homeward-bound eastern vessels, St. Helena, even in peace time, is of great utility; and it is well situate as a cruising station for our ships of war—as is also

Ascension—contiguous to St. Helena, in latitude 7° 57′ south, longitude 14° 28′ west; it is a small island of volcanic production, the coast consisting of barren rock, relieved, however, in some places by the verdure on the declivity of the Green Mountain. The island has been of late years well fortified at every accessible part (the sea breaks on the island with tremendous violence), and garrisoned by a detachment of marines and marine artillery, who, aided by artificers, have erected a neat establishment for their location. A shaft has been sunk in one of the mountains, and abundance of excellent water conveyed to the anchorage by iron pipes and hoses; and a good soil was found two feet under the lava on which an abundant supply of vegetables may be reared. The beach, at first thought to be composed of sand, was found to consist of very small fragments of shells, in some places firmly compacted together. These slabs were formed of several layers, of which the size of the fragments differs in each layer; they are used for tombstones, steps of doors, and are broken and burned for lime. Red volcanic

ashes prevail, several hills entirely exhibiting that appearance. Of the vegetable kingdom, the euphorbia only is found growing in small tufts, distributed not very abundantly about the rugged lava,—a beautiful object among such barren scenes. Sea fowl are very numerous, and there are three species of butterflies on the island, of handsome colours.

Ponds are kept stocked with turtle, weighing from 200 to 800 lbs. each, which may be bought for 50 shillings. Abundance of fish and marine birds are obtainable. At a place called 'The Fair,' the birds named sea-swallows, as well as numerous other aquatic birds, congregate; the eggs of the sea-swallows, which are of a dirty white with dark red spots, and about the size of a crow's egg, are collected at certain seasons of the year in thousands, and considered delicate aud excellent eating[1].

Moorings are laid down in the roads, and vessels in want of water and vegetables can be supplied at a moderate price.

During war, these islands in the possession of an enemy would, as outlying picquets, be a means of serious injury to our commerce; during peace they are refreshing stations, enabling our seamen to have at all times a friendly haven under their lee.

[1] When at Algoa Bay, in 1825, I used to collect thousands of sea fowl eggs at the contiguous bird islands, and they furnished our mess with omelets of a peculiar but rather pleasing flavour, for several weeks. When boiled, the white of the egg is perfectly transparent.

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BOOK V.

BRITISH SETTLEMENTS IN WESTERN AFRICA, INCLUDING SIERRA LEONE, THE GAMBIA, AND CAPE COAST CASTLE.

CHAPTER I.

LOCALITY—AREA—HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT—RIVERS—GEOLOGY—CLIMATE—VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL KINGDOMS—POPULATION—GOVERNMENT—FINANCES—COMMERCE—SOCIAL STATE AND FUTURE PROSPECTS, &c. &c.

None of the colonies of England have been misrepresented more than those situate on the western coast of Africa; few surpass them in moral, commercial, and political interest. Unfortunately my limits compel brevity; but I trust before these pages be concluded, the reader will agree with me, that our possessions on the shores of Western Africa are an important and essential link in the maritime empire of Britain.

The trade between Western Africa and Europe commenced about the middle of the fifteenth century,

for we learn that in 1455, Prince Henry of Portugal built a fort on the island of Arguin. At the beginning of the sixteenth century, the English, Spaniards, French, Danes, and Dutch had begun to send private ships to trade on this coast; but during the middle of this century the commerce of each nation was organized under the management of chartered companies, who formed establishments on different parts of the coast, built forts at the mouths of several rivers, and prosecuted an active trade, the greater part of which (as stated in my West India volume) was for slaves. The English settled chiefly at Cape Coast Castle; the French at the mouth of the Senegal and at Goree Island; the Dutch on the Gambia; the Portuguese at St. George del Mina; the Danes at Christianborg, &c. Each of these strong fortresses, mounting from fifty to sixty pieces of cannon, had subordinate posts and stations, several of which continue to this day. At the present moment our settlements are situate at Bathurst, on the Gambia, at Sierra Leone, Cape Coast Castle, and Accra, and a brief description of the sea coast, followed by a succinct account of each settlement, will be therefore necessary.

Physical Aspect, Description, and History.—In general the coast of Western Africa, extending for 4000 miles along the Atlantic, with an average breadth of 300 miles, is along the ocean boundary a flat country, backed by ranges of lofty mountains, which in some places approach the sea, and as at Cape Verd, project in bold headlands. The great coast chain runs parallel to the coast from west to east, where, affording a passage for the disemboguing

waters of the Nun, one of the mouths of the Niger, tends towards the north-east to join or form the Gebel el Kumri, or Mountains of the Moon; some of the peaks of this range (those of Cameranca, near Benin) are said to be 13,000 feet in elevation. It is only, however, about the estuaries of the great rivers and along their banks that the country can be said to be flat, in other places it consists of gentle undulations and rising eminences, giving considerable beauty to the landscape, the most conspicuous feature of which are the numerous rivers that disembogue into the ocean, most of them arising in the chain of mountains above described, and running a tortuous course to the coast.

Among the principal rivers are the Senegal, Gambia, Rio Grande, Rio Nunez, Rokelle, Cameranca Mesurado, Nun or Niger, Congo and Coauzo. Beginning with the most northerly, the Senegal appears to rise in the Kong range of mountains (heights of Foota Jalloo), in nearly 10° north latitude, and 10° west longitude, where the Niger is thought to rise; the Senegal, about 15° north latitude, is joined by several tributary streams, viz. the Woolery, Faleme, Neriko, &c., and after passing Galam and the falls of Felu, makes a circuitous bend to the north-west along the borders of the desert, and falls into the Atlantic at Fort Louis, its course being 950 miles.

The Gambia has its source in the same mountain range as the Senegal, near the Faleme, one of the tributaries of the latter named river, and rolls a powerful and rapid stream, at first to the north-west and then westerly, falling into the Atlantic, after a course

of 700 miles, about 13° 13′ north latitude. The country between the rivers Senegal and Gambia is called by the French the Sen-Gambia. The Rio Grande is, as far as we know[1], a large stream, nor is any river equal to the Gambia met with until we arrive at the Bight or Gulf of Benin, where, for the space of above 200 miles, there is a succession of large estuaries, now ascertained (through the persevering enterprize of the Landers) to be the mouths of the long-sought Niger, whose origin we are still ignorant of, and whose course and embouchures are still to a great extent unexplored; the delta of this mighty stream stretching into the interior of Western Africa for more than 170 miles, occupies, it is supposed, a space of more than 300 miles along the coast, thus forming a surface of more than 25,000 square miles, being a considerably larger area than is embraced in all Ireland. Further south the Congo or Zaire pours its ample volume of waters into the broad Atlantic, 400 miles having been navigated during Captain Tuckey's unfortunate expedition, leaving its further course and source still involved in mystery. Of the Coauzo, though a large river, we

[1] Captain Belcher, who surveyed the coast line here in 1830-32, in the Etna and Raven, says, that he thinks the whole of the space between the Nunez and Rio Grande is one great archipelago, and navigable, at high water, for vessels of four or five feet draught, and it is generally believed that canoes can navigate from Isles de Los to the Gambia, within the islands of this (supposed) huge archipelago. It is probable that a large river will yet be found here. The Compome, as far as explored, is a very extensive stream.

are not yet in possession of sufficient information to speak positively. With a knowledge of the foregoing leading physical features, we proceed to examine the coast more in detail as regards its social as well as geographical divisions, beginning on the north with the river Senegal, where the French established themselves upwards of a century since.

Fort St. Louis, the capital, is situated on an island in the river, a mere sandbank, without any water which can be drunk without being filtered, and dependent entirely for provisions on the southern coast, which, however, yields them in abundance. St. Louis never became a large settlement; Golberry, in 1786, reckons not above sixty Europeans settled there for the purposes of trade. The military and civil servants of government amounted to 600, the natives to 2400. The French lost St. Louis during the revolutionary war, but we restored it to them on the friendly peace which succeeded in 1814, under a treaty that Portendick was always to be open to us for the trade in gum; but which treaty the French violated[1]. The disastrous fate, however, of the expedition sent out in the Medusa frigate has been unfavourable to any attempt to restore and extend the prosperity of the colony. It is said, however, to have experienced an increase within the last few

[1] The French recently took umbrage at one of the chiefs of the Trazars, brought him a prisoner down to Port Louis, tried him by a drum-head court martial, and shot him. The natives, of course, declared war against the French; the latter to force the natives into a compliance, contrary to the letter and spirit of our treaty, blockaded Portendick.

years, and to contain now about 600 inhabitants. The original hopes of its greatness were founded on the supposed identity of the Senegal with the Niger, and on the prospect of a communication by it with the inmost regions of Africa. All the efforts founded upon this erroneous theory proved of course abortive, and the commercial advantages of the colony (the procuring of slaves not included) have been confined to the gum trade[1] and the gold trade of Bambouk.

[1] The gum which, from this river and settlement, is called Gum Senegal, is the produce of some scattered oases, or verdant spots, that occur in the vast desert of sand to the north of the Senegal. The species of acacia from which it exudes has every appearance of a stunted and desert tree: its aspect is crooked and rough, its branches are thorny, its leaves of a dry or dirty green. The mere blowing of the harmattan causes the bark to crack in numberless places, and the gum to flow in large transparent drops, which remain attached to the surface. The harvest of the gum is in December, when the Moorish tribes, of whom the Trazars are the most powerful, break up from their usual camps, their kings and princes at their head, and proceed in a confused and tumultuous crowd to the forests, of which each claims one or more. After six weeks spent in collecting the gum, they put it in large leathern sacks, with which they load their camels, and proceed in the same tumultuous array to the spot fixed on for the gum market, between Fort Louis and Podor. This plain, which is one of the most desolate spots in nature, is suddenly covered with an innumerable multitude of people enveloped in clouds of dust. The kings appear mounted on beautiful horses, their wives seated in baskets on the backs of camels, the crowd on foot; the air resounds with the cries of men, women, children, and animals. A cannon is fired as the signal for commencing the trade. A dreadful scene of wrangling and higgling immediately ensues.

The kingdom of Bambouk, situate near the head of the river, and so enclosed between its main stream and the great branches of the Kokoro and the Faleme, as to form almost a complete island, is the next object of commercial importance to the French on the Senegal. It is almost entirely a country of mountains, whence flow numerous streams, almost all of which roll over golden sands; but the main depositaries, where the metal is traced as it were to its source, are two mountains, Natakon and Semayla. The former composes almost an entire mass of gold, united with earth, iron, or emery. The first four feet of depth consists of fat earth, from which the grains of gold are extracted by agitation with water in a calabash; afterwards the precious metal begins to appear in small grains or spangles, and at twenty feet in small lumps of from two to ten grains. The pieces become always larger as the work descends; but as the natives have no means of propping up the sides, they often fall in and bury the workmen. Semayla, a mountain 200 feet high, presents a different structure. The gold is here embedded in hard sandstone, which must

The French accuse the Africans of most dishonest arts in order to enhance the value of their commodity. They themselves, it appears, are not far behind, since they have not scrupled to adopt the policy of insensibly augmenting the size of the cantar by which the gum is measured, a change which escapes the notice of their rude antagonists. The French take off annually about 1200 tons of gum, which sells in Europe at from 70*l.* to 90*l.* per ton. The returns are taken almost exclusively in East India cotton cloths dyed blue, which are called pieces of Guinea, and for which it has been in vain attempted to substitute the manufacture of Europe.

be reduced to powder before the extrication can be effected. Part of it also is found in red marble, a substance which to the natives is perfectly unmanageable. Bambouk is said to have been early conquered by a Mahometan force, and afterwards by the Portuguese. Both have been driven out, and the French never made any serious attempt to establish themselves in it.

The point at which the French attempted to carry on the commerce of the Upper Senegal is at Fort St. Joseph, in the kingdom of Galam or Kajaaga. A voyage thither was reckoned to produce cent. per cent.; but the unhealthiness of the climate, the difficulties of the navigation, and the constant hazard of being plundered by a succession of barbarous chiefs who occupy the banks, rendered it a very precarious speculation. At present the fort is abandoned and in ruins; but the Serawoolies, who inhabit this fine country, are among the most industrious of the African tribes, and have engrossed the trade of Bambouk, Manding, and most of the upper countries on the Senegal and Niger.

In descending the Senegal, there are several populous and powerful states, among which is that of Foota Torra, extending considerably both to the south and north of the river, but of which the interior has not been explored by Europeans. The king is a zealous Mahometan, and, under pretext of making converts, has endeavoured to subdue the almost pagan Damel or Burb of the Jalofs. The latter, however, by the strength of his country and a prudent system of warfare, has been able to baffle his attempt. On

the middle Senegal, the most important personage is the Siratic, who holds his court at Ghiorel, considerably to the north of the river. Nearer the sea is the kingdom of Hoval, governed by a petty prince, called the Greak Brak, which, in the language of the country, signifies King of Kings[1].

The coast between the Gambia and Senegal is chiefly occupied by the kingdom of Kayor. It is stated, by Golberry, to extend 750 miles in length, and to contain 180,000 inhabitants, who are Jalofs. At the little island of Goree, on this coast, the French have established the capital of all their African settlements. Its advantages consist solely in its almost inaccessible situation on a rock, three sides of which are perpendicular, and the fourth very steep. The rock is fortified, but not, it is said, in the most skilful manner. The town contains 7000 inhabitants, and presents a very bustling scene, being the entrepot of all the trade with the opposite coast, and also a place of refreshment for French ships on their way to India. It lies on the southern side of the peninsula, which terminates in Cape Verde, the most westerly point of the African continent. Though the soil be sandy, it bears a number of those immense trees called Baobab, which give to the Cape that verdant aspect whence it derives its name. On the northern side, two hills, 600 feet high, mark this striking geographical position, and serve as a guide to mariners.

[1] I give these and several other details on the authority of Murray's Encyclopædia of Geography, who, however, does not state his authority; it appears to be derived from Golberry. My object is to stimulate to further investigation.

The Gambia is almost entirely an English river, the attempts to form settlements upon it having, for nearly two centuries, been confined to our own nation. Our settlements on the Gambia will be found subsequently detailed.

The Gambia is bordered on its north bank by several flourishing little kingdoms. That immediately on the sea is Barra, said to contain 200,000 inhabitants. The capital is Barra Inding; but the chief place of trade is Jillifrey. In the kingdom of Barra there are seven principal towns, with a family entitled to the crown in each, who succeed to the cap or throne alternately. Boor Salum is a still more extensive kingdom, situated on a small river that falls into the Gambia, and containing, it is said, 300,000 inhabitants. Above it occur successively the two smaller kingdoms of Yani and Woolli. The territory of all these states is flat and fertile, abounding in rice, grain, and other provisions. The inhabitants are chiefly of the Mandingo race, and carry on a considerable trade into the interior. At Barraconda, about 400 miles up the river, are falls, or rather rapids, above which sandbanks and flats soon render the navigation difficult.

To the south of the Gambia nothing of great importance occurs, till we come to the alluvial estuaries of the Rio Grande, a river supposed, as its name imports, to be of some magnitude; but Captain Owen found it a mere inlet, receiving some inconsiderable streams. At its mouth occur a number of islands, which, with a group opposite to them in the open sea, form what is called the Archipelago of the Bis-

sagos. The inhabitants of the same name, called also Bijugas, are a tall, robust, warlike people, who have driven out the peaceable race of the Biafaras, the original tenants, and have compelled them to confine themselves to the continent and the banks of the Rio Grande. Bissao, the largest of these islands, is inhabited by the Papels, also warlike and enterprising. In 1792, an association was formed in England, with a view to planting a settlement in the island of Bulama; but, though no opposition was made in the first instance, the difficulty of establishing a new colony under circumstances so unfavourable, and especially amidst the hostility of these rude neighbours, obliged us to desist[1].

Along the heads of the Rio Grande lies the important kingdom of Foota Jallo, said to extend about 350 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. It appears to be the most improved of all the states in this part of Africa. The inhabitants are Foulahs, and of the Mahometan faith, but not bigots, and their marabouts are held in high reputation for learning. They manufacture cloths of considerable fineness; they work in iron dug from extensive mines in the country, also in silver, wood, and leather, and they conduct large caravans into the interior, as far even as Timbuctoo and Cassina. Here, where they are the ruling people, they by no means display that pacific character which distinguishes the tribes on the Gambia and Senegal. They can bring into the field 16,000 men.

[1] The Portuguese have lately made a settlement upon this island despite the remonstrances of Colonel Findlay, the late governor of the Gambia.

Timbo, or Teembo, the capital, is said to contain 7000 souls, and Laby 5000.

To the south of Foota Jallo is Soolimana, also warlike and considerable. It borders on the Niger in the highest part of its course, though the sources of that river are placed in the hostile territory of the Kissi. The king is at present Mahometan, but the bulk of the nation pagan. They are a gay, thoughtless, stirring race. On the eastern side of the Niger is the country of Sangara, still more extensive and more warlike; the people of which would, it is supposed, have by this time conquered Foota Jallo, had they been united among themselves. At present, whenever the Soolimas are inclined to go to war, they can easily command 10,000 auxiliaries from beyond the Niger.

In returning to the coast, we pass through the Koorango country, inhabited by the Mandingoes, who, as usual, are gay, thoughtless, hospitable, and enterprising. Farther down are the Timmanees, a more depraved race, who were the chief agents in the slave trade. They are described as treacherous, and avaricious. Captain Laing met a woman who accused her two children of witchcraft, and on that ground offered to sell them to him at a low price. Their agriculture is peculiarly rude, and the cloths of their manufacture very coarse. They abuse the English as having deprived them of almost their only source of wealth, which consisted in the sale of slaves. This people are oppressed by a singular association called Purrah, who, united by a bond and always supporting each other, have become almost

masters of the country, and often exercise their power in a very tyrannical manner.

The country of the Timmanees borders on that part of the coast where Britain, with the most philanthropic views, has founded the colony of Sierra Leone. Its principal seat at Freetown is on the south side of the bay, which receives the river formerly called by the same name, but now more usually the Rokelle, and which rises in the Soolimana country; it will be found subsequently described.

The space from Sierra Leone to the commencement of the grain coast of Guinea, an extent of about 200 miles, is chiefly marked by the entrance into the sea of the considerable rivers of Sherbro and Mesurado. The former is navigable twenty leagues up, and has a tolerably large island at its mouth. On the banks is found a species of pearl oyster. The Mesurado is a still larger stream, and very rapid[1]. According to the natives, it requires three months' navigation to reach its source, which would appear to be in the

[1] The Americans, in 1820, formed a settlement on this coast, which was called Liberia; while its capital, on an island at the mouth of the Mesurado, was named Monrovia. The object was to obtain an asylum for liberated negroes, who, notwithstanding their emancipation, are, by the prejudices of the Americans, regarded as beings of an inferior order. In spite of disastrous events, which obstructed its progress, it had attained, in 1830, a population of 1500. The population of Monrovia amounted to about 700, the rest were distributed in eight different stations along 150 miles of coast from Cape Mount to Tradetown. The territory is healthy and fertile; but I regret to hear that the colony has been badly managed, and is now in a wretched state.

mountains of Kong, not very far from that of the Niger. The banks are described as finely wooded, fertile, and, in many places, very well cultivated. The states here are entirely negro in religion and manners, none of the Mahometan institutions having penetrated so far. Travellers enumerate the kingdoms of Bulm, Quoja, Monon, and Folga, which they sometimes even dignify with the title of empires. The sovereigns are, in general, absolute, and their obsequies are celebrated with human sacrifices, though not to the same frightful extent as in some of the countries to the west.

From the Mesurado to Cape Palmas extends what is commonly called the Grain or Malaghetta Coast of Guinea[1]. The two rivers of Sesters[2] and Sangwin, near the centre of the coast, are rather considerable, and their banks are said to be fertile and populous. The state of society seems to be nearly the same as in the countries last described; the sovereigns absolute, human sacrifices prevalent to a certain extent, and also self-immolation.

[1] The species of pepper to which it owes its name is produced from a small parasitical plant, with beautiful green leaves, and the fruit of which, resembling a fig, presents, when opened, aromatic grains, forming the valuable part. At its first introduction into Europe, where such articles were little known, it received the flattering appellation of 'grains of paradise.' After the diffusion, however, of the fine species of India, it fell into total disrepute, and this coast, producing no other articles of export, has been the least frequented of any part of Guinea.

[2] A settlement, called St. George's, has recently been made at this river by Captain Spence.

Great sway is in the hands of a peculiar priesthood, called the *belli*. The youthful candidate for a place in this body, must qualify himself by a long initiation, during which he is withdrawn from all his friends, and lodged in the depth of a sacred forest, where, it is said, he is kept in a state of entire nudity. Among the tests of his proficiency is the performance of songs and dances, of a very extravagant and often indecent nature; but peculiar knowledge is also supposed to be communicated on various high points; and those who have gone through the course with success, and are called the "marked of the *belli*," look upon all the rest of the community as *quolga*, or idiots. They not only administer all the concerns of religion, but conduct the judicial proceedings; most of which are made dependent on some form of ordeal. Although the Portuguese have lost all their settlements in this part of Africa, considerable numbers of their posterity reside there, mixed with the natives, by whom they are treated with some degree of respect.

Beyond Cape Palmas, tending to the north-east, and reaching as far as Cape Apollonia, is called the Ivory Coast. The name is evidently derived from the quantities of that valuable product, obtained from the numerous elephants on the sea shore, and in the interior. The teeth are of good quality, and uncommonly large, weighing sometimes not less than 200 lbs. Towards the east, at Assinoe and Apollonia, a considerable quantity of gold is brought down from the countries behind the Gold Coast. There is also a good deal of ivory at the ports of Cape Lahoo, and

Great and Little Bassam. There are no European settlements upon the coast, except an English fort at Apollonia, which perhaps belongs rather to the Gold Coast. Navigation along this, as well as the Grain Coast, requires much caution, as the shore is flat and destitute of any conspicuous land marks, while a heavy surf, borne in from the whole breadth of the Atlantic, breaks continually against it. Early navigators describe the natives as the most violent and intractable race on the whole African coast. The teeth filed to a point, the nails long, while their harsh and guttural language, almost resembling the cry of wild beasts, inspired disgust; they have been accused of cannibalism; and their suspicion of Europeans is usually said to be so great, that nothing can induce them to go on board a vessel. Captain Adams, however, the most recent visitor, gives a much more favourable account: he even says, that almost all the business is transacted on board European ships, though, when he did go on shore, he was hospitably received.

From Apollonia to the Rio Volta extends what is called the Gold Coast of Africa. It was long the most frequented by European traders, particularly English and Dutch, both for that highly-prized commodity which its name indicates, and for slaves, while so nefarious a commerce was permitted. The coast presents the appearance of an immense thick forest, only detached spots of which are cleared and cultivated. The soil near the sea, being light and sandy, is scarcely fit for any important tropical product, except cotton; but six or seven miles inland it improves greatly, and might be made to produce

sugar, and others of the richest West India products, if the profits of industry were secured to the inhabitants. Maize is the grain principally cultivated. The gold, which forms the staple commodity, is chiefly brought down from mountainous districts far in the interior. The natives understand the process of smelting the golden ore, but the pure metal is found in such large quantities close to the surface as to require the exercise of little ingenuity. In many places, however, even upon the coast, a small quantity may be extracted from the earth by mere agitation with water in a calabash. Little or no ivory is exported. The ruling people on the coast are the Fantees, a clever, stirring, turbulent race. They exert more ingenuity in the construction of their dwellings, and canoes, than the nations to the west. The form of government is republican, and each village has a large public hall, roofed, but open at the sides, where an assembly is held, and public affairs are debated. The pynins, or elders, possess considerable authority, and the administration of justice is chiefly in their hands.

The capital of the British settlements is at Cape Coast Castle, subsequently described. To the west of Cape Coast, we have Dix Cove and Succondee, in the Ahanta country, a very fertile tract, and to which purer gold is brought than to any other part the coast. The inhabitants are also peaceable and tractable, and the chances of improvement, as Mr. Meredith conceives, are on the whole favourable. The British station at Anamaboe was formerly the great mart of the slave trade. The fort is compact

and regular; and in 1807 it withstood, with a garrison of twelve men, the attack of 15,000 Ashantees. Winnebah, in the Agoona country, though in an agreeable situation, has been abandoned; but Fort James, at Accra, would, in peaceable times, afford great convenience for trade, as no other place on the coast has such extensive intercourse with the interior. Cape Coast Castle and Accra are now the only places where any garrison is maintained.

The capital of the Dutch settlements, in this part of Africa, is El Mina, or the Castle: first founded by the Portuguese, and taken from them in 1637. It is about nine miles west of Cape Coast Castle, in an open country, close to a large dirty town of 11,000 inhabitants. The fort is well built, on a high situation, and vessels of 100 tons can come close to the walls; but its strength has been doubted. The Dutch maintain here a garrison of 100 men, and keep their establishment, on the whole, upon a more reputable scale than the British. Their forts along the coast are numerous, but none now are garrisoned except Elmina and Axim. The Danes have a respectable fort near Accra, called Christianborg Castle, and also one at Ningo, near the eastern extremity of the coast.

The country behind the Gold Coast, when first known to Europeans, was divided among a number of considerable kingdoms, Dinkira, Akim, Warsaw, and Aquamboe; but all these have now sunk beneath the overwhelming sway of the Ashantees. This warlike power has also reduced the interior countries of Gaman, Inta, Dagwumba, and others, of which

some are more extensive and populous than itself. Ashantee Proper is estimated to contain 14,000 square miles, and about a million of people ; but this last number would be more than quadrupled, if we were to include all its subjects, and vassals. The character of the Ashantees is detailed under the head of Population.

On the eastern side of the Rio Volta commences what Europeans have called the Slave Coast, because slaves were there procured of the most docile and tractable character. It consisted originally of the two kingdoms of Whydah and Ardrah, forming the most populous and the best cultivated part of the African coast. The vast and impenetrable forests which cover so much of the continent had here been cut down, leaving only what was requisite for ornament and convenience. The whole country is said to have been like a garden, covered with fruits and grain of every description. Amid this abundance, the Whydans, having become luxurious and effeminate, were unable to make head against the warlike power of Dahomney, in the interior, which invaded and conquered them at the last century. The first ravages were dreadful, and rendered their country almost a desert, nor has its peaceful submission ever allowed it to regain its former prosperity.

Dahomey, which is thus predominant both over the coast and over the interior, to a depth of about 200 miles, is governed upon the same system as Ashantee, and with all its deformities, which it carries to a still more violent excess. The bloody customs take place on a still greater scale ; and the

bodies of the victims, instead of being interred, are hung upon the walls and allowed to putrefy. Human skulls make the favourite ornament of the palaces and temples, and the king is said to have his sleeping apartment paved with them. His wives are kept up to an equal number with those of the king of Ashantee. All the female sex are considered as at the king's disposal, and an annual assemblage takes place, when, having made a large selection for himself, he distributes the refuse among his grandees, who are bound to receive them with the humblest gratitude: in short, this ferocious race allow themselves to be domineered over in a manner of which there is no example among the most timid and polished nations. The greatest lords in approaching he king throw themselves flat on the ground, laying their heads in the dust; and the belief is instilled into them, that their life belongs entirely to their sovereign, and that they ought never to hesitate a moment to sacrifice it in his service. The king of Dahomey has been lately worsted in his wars with Eyeo, by whom he is now held in a species of vassalage. His country consists of an extensive and fertile plain, rising from the sea by a gradual ascent. The soil is a reddish clay mixed with sand, and nowhere contains a stone of the size of a walnut. Though capable of every species of tropical culture, little is actually produced from it that is fitted for a foreign market; so that since the abolition of the slave trade, small advantage has accrued from continuing the intercourse with it, and the English fort at Whydah has been abandoned.

Whydah, now commonly called Griwhee, may be considered the port of Dahomey, from which a route of about 100 miles reaches through Favies and Toro to Abomey, the capital. Griwhee is situated in a fertile country, still highly cultivated, and is plentifully supplied with all the necessaries and conveniences of African life. Captain Adams, whose estimates on this point are unusually low, represents it as containing about 7,000 inhabitants. The despotic and capricious manner, however, in which foreign residents are treated by the tyrant of Dahomey, has gradually induced the different European powers to withdraw their factories. Ardrah is still larger and more flourishing; containing, according to the same authority, 10,000 inhabitants. It is situated about 25 miles inland, on a long and beautiful lake or lagoon, running parallel to the sea, with which it becomes connected at its eastern extremity by the river of Lagos. The Ardranese are industrious in the manufacture of cotton, interwoven with silk: they make also soap, baskets, and earthenware, and are skilful in working iron. Their market is the best regulated of any on the coast, and exhibits the manufactures of India and Europe, tobacco from Brazil, cloth from Eyeo and Houssa, and every other article that is here in demand. Though so close to Dahomey, the people appear to enjoy a republican form of government. A considerable number of Mahometan residents have made their way hither, and have introduced the management of horses, and the use of milk, to both of which the negroes in general are strangers. Badagry, though it has

suffered by recent contests with Lagos, appears by Lander's report, to be still a large and populous place, situated in a fine plain, and divided into four districts, each governed by a chief, who assumes the title of king. Lagos is built upon a small island, or rather the bank at the point where the channel communicates with the sea on one side, and on the other with the Cradoo Lake, a parallel piece of water. The town is scarcely a foot above the lake, and is over-run by water rats from it. It has 5000 inhabitants, with a good deal of stir and trade. Its petty despot assumes all the airs of the greatest African monarchs, never allowing his courtiers to approach him unless crawling on the ground. Some barbarous customs prevail, such as impaling alive a young female, to propitiate the goddess who presides over rain, and hanging the heads of malefactors to some large trees at the end of the town. The currency here consists of cowries, which are imported in large quantities, and transmitted into Houssa and other interior countries, where they form the universal circulating medium.

At the termination of the Cradoo Lake commences a large tract of coast, of a peculiar character, which, from the principal state, receives the name of Benin. It extends upwards of 200 miles, and presents a succession of broad estuaries, now discovered to be all branches of the Niger, of which this country forms the delta. They communicate with each other by creeks, and, frequently overflowing their banks, render the shore for 20 or 30 miles inland, a vast alluvial wooded morass. The natives, having thus very

extended water communications, are the most active traders anywhere in Africa; but, except slaves, the commodities in which they deal are entirely changed. Gold has disappeared; ivory is again found in considerable plenty; but palm oil is the great staple of the eastern districts. A great quantity of salt is made at the mouths of the rivers, both for consumption at home and in the interior.

The first leading feature is the River Formosa, two miles wide at its mouth; on a creek tributary to it lies the capital of Benin. This city appeared to Captain Adams the largest he had seen on the coast of Africa; he, therefore, probably under-rates its population at 15,000; being irregularly built, and consisting of detached houses, it occupies an immense space of ground. The surrounding territory is well cultivated, though not so thoroughly cleared of wood as that round Ardrah and Whydah. The king is not only absolute, but '*fetiche*,' or a god, in the eyes of his subjects; and all offences against him are punished in the most cruel and summary manner, not only as treason, but impiety. Gatto, about 50 miles below, is the port of Benin; accessible to vessels of 60 tons. The trade on this river has greatly declined.

Warré, or Owarri, is another state and city, situated on another creek, communicating with the Formosa, on its opposite side. It consists of a somewhat elevated and beautiful island, appearing as if dropped from the clouds amidst the vast woods and swamps by which it is surrounded. Here, too, the king is

absolute, and carries polygamy to a very great extent. A recent traveller, happening to get a peep into the seraglio, saw about 50 queens, busied in various employments from the toilette to the washing-tub. New Town, on the Formosa, is the port of Warré.

After doubling Cape Formosa, and passing several estuaries, we come to that of the Brass River, called by the Portuguese, the River of Nun. Though not the largest estuary of the Niger, yet, being most directly in the line of the main stream, and that by which Lander entered the Atlantic, it at present enjoys the reputation of being the principal channel. It is divided into two branches; but the navigation is greatly impeded, and the trade limited, by a dangerous bar at its mouth. Brass Town is built not on either branch, but on one of the numerous creeks connected with both, and in a country overgrown with impenetrable thickets of mangrove. It is a poor place, divided by a lagoon into two parts, each of which contains about 1,000 inhabitants. Bonny River forms the next important estuary having on its opposite sides the towns of Bonny and New Calabar. Being only a few miles up, they are in the midst of the morasses which overspread all this country. The people support themselves by the manufacture of salt, and they trade in slaves, and palm oil. Bonny, in particular, is become the great mart for these last commodities, and is supposed to export annually about 20,000 slaves! The dealers go in large canoes two or three days' sail to Eboe, the great interior market. The king is absolute, and more barbarous

than the rest of his brethren on this coast. He boasts of having twice destroyed New Calabar, and ornaments his fetiche house with the skulls of enemies taken in battle.

To the eastward of Bonny is the estuary of Old Calabar River, the broadest of all and navigable for large vessels 60 miles up to Ephraim Town, governed by a chief, who assumes the title of duke. It appears to contain about 6,000 inhabitants, carrying on a considerable trade; and the duke has a large house filled with European manufactures and ornaments of every kind, received by him in presents. This river is followed by that of Rio del Rey, and then by the Rio Cameroons. The country yields a good deal of ivory and palm oil. The continuity of that vast wooded flat, which has extended along the coast for more than 200 miles, is now broken by some very lofty mountains, the principal of which is supposed to reach the height of 13,000 feet.

Several islands lie in the Bight of Biafra. Fernando Po, in 3° 28′ north latitude and 8° 40′ 15″ east longitude, is a fine large island, lately occupied only by a lawless race, composed of slaves, or malefactors, escaped from the neighbouring coast. The British government, formed, in 1827, a settlement at this island, the mountainous and picturesque aspect of which afforded hopes of a healthy station; the settlement is, I believe, abandoned by government, but I think prematurely, for as the island became cleared, its insalubrity would have diminished; and it would be an extremely valuable colony to Great Britain,

from its vicinity to the mouths of the Niger. Prince's Island, situate also in the Bight of Benin, 9½ miles long by 6 broad, is high (the loftiest peak, 4,000 feet), and wooded. St. Thomas is large and fertile; towards its south extremity it presents a mass of steep elevations, with abrupt craggy faces, and two or three pinnacles, resembling gigantic nine-pins: one half the island is mountainous. The pretty little Isle of Annabona is inhabited by a simple native race, to the number of 3,000; it is near 3,000 feet high, but its length does not exceed four, nor its breadth two miles: its heights are rounded like those of Fernando Po rather than peaked and pointed like Prince's Island. These islands run in a chain to the south west from the Rio Calabar; and the last three are in nominal subjection to the Crown of Portugal.

The next division of Western Africa consists of Congo and Loango, the coast of which is generally named Angola. The principal feature is the Zaïre, or Congo, a powerful and rapid river, which rushes by a single channel into the Atlantic. Its course was traced upwards by Captain Tuckey, in his unfortunate expedition, about 400 miles, yet nothing was ascertained as to its origin and early course; though the hypothesis of its forming the termination of the Niger is now completely refuted. The population along the river is said to be small; the largest villages, Cooloo, Embomma, and Inga, containing only from 300 to 600 inhabitants. The interior capital of Congowar, however, mentioned as the

residence of the Blindy North Conge, to whom all the chiefs pay a species of vassalage, is probably what the Portuguese called St. Salvador: and where, according to Mr. Bowdich, they still maintain a mission; but no recent details have been obtained respecting it. There is regular distinction of ranks, the Chenoo, or chief, hereditary in the female line; the Mafoots, or collectors of the revenue; the Foomoos, or cultivators; and the domestic slaves, which latter are not numerous.

The slave trade, for which alone this part of Africa is now frequented, is chiefly carried on at Malemba and Cabenda, on the North side of the river. Malemba has been called the Montpelier of Africa. It stands on a hill about 100 feet high, commanding a beautiful prospect of the windings of the Loango Louisa, through an extensive plain. Its dry and elevated situation preserves it from those deadly influences which operate so fatally on the health of mariners. Cabenda, near the mouth of the river of that name, also a beautiful city, is situated at the foot of a conical wooded mountain, and has been called the Paradise of the Coast. It is a great mart for slaves, who are brought from the opposite territory of Sogno.

The country to the South of Congo is called Benguela, and its commerce is still almost entirely in the hands of the Portuguese. They frequent the bay and river of Ambriz, in which there is a tolerable roadstead; but their great settlement is at St. Paul de Loanda, a large town in an elevated situation. It is said to export annually 18,000 or 20,000 slaves,

chiefly to Brazil[1]. S. Felipe de Benguela, in a marshy and unhealthy site, is now considerably declined; and its population does not exceed 3,000, mostly free negroes and slaves. There is also a smaller port, called Nova Redondo. The Portuguese claim a certain jurisdiction over the native states for several hundred miles in the interior, obtaining presents and purchasing slaves. Further inland is the country of Jaga Cassanga. The Jagas are celebrated by the writers of travels, two centuries ago, as a formidable devastating tribe, addicted to the most ferocious habits; and no change is since asserted to have taken place in their character. Behind them, and in about the centre of the continent, the nation of the Molouas are represented as more numerous, more intelligent, and possessing a higher degree of industry and civilization than any other in Africa, under this latitude. Of the remainder of the coast, towards our own territories, in Southern Africa, little is known.

Portugal at first claimed the whole of the coast just described, but was driven from it by the Dutch, who took El Mina in 1643; the latter were in turn compelled to retreat by the English, in 1661, who took Cape Coast Castle, and having formed an African Company, commenced the establishment of forts for the protection of trade.

The settlements at present belonging to England in Western Africa are as follows:

[1] It is a disgrace to England to permit the continuance of this infamous traffic.

Sierra Leone.—The first settlers here were the Portuguese; shortly afterwards, the English established themselves upon Bance Island, in the middle of the river. At the suggestion of Dr. Smeathmane the negroes discharged from the army and navy after the American war, to the amount of about 400, with 60 whites, were conveyed to Sierra Leone, furnished with all things necessary to establish a colony, in the year 1787; and a piece of ground 20 miles square having been purchased from one of the native chiefs, a town, called Freetown, was founded. A dreadful mortality shortly afterwards reduced the colonists to one-half, and a native chief, taking advantage of their weakness, plundered the settlement in 1789, and drove the colonists to seek for shelter in Bance Island. In 1791 and the following year, the African Association having become incorporated and obtained a charter[1], conveyed thither a number of settlers, among whom were the Maroon negroes, who had been sent from Jamaica to Nova Scotia. Freetown was plundered by the French in 1794, and so great was the disaster, and so destitute the condition of the settlers, that the company entered into an arrangement with the government to place the colony under His Majesty's jurisdiction.

It was subsequently placed by the British Govern-

[1] A charter was granted in 1802 to the Sierra Leone Company; it was subsequently revised and (with some alterations) confirmed, first in 1808, when the settlement was transferred to the Crown, and, finally, in 1821, when the forts and possessions of the late African Company on the Gold Coast were annexed to Sierra Leone.

ment under the management of the African Institution, established for the improvement of the Western part of Africa; and its population was recruited by sending thither all slaves captured in vessels engaged in that traffic. Since the dissolution of the African Company, Sierra Leone has been again placed under the control of the crown. (See section on Government.)

The boundaries of the settlement are difficult to define; in 1787 a tract of the peninsula of Sierra Leone was ceded to England by the native chiefs extending fifteen miles from north to south by four from east to west:—the western boundary subsequently advanced to the sea as far as the point of land called False Cape. In the charters granted to the Sierra Leone Company in 1800, 1809, and 1821, the colony is described as the peninsula of Sierra Leone, bounded on the north by the river of that name; on the south by the Camaranca River; on the east by the River Bunce; and on the west by the sea. The peninsula, as at present known, is bounded on the north by the Sierra Leone river; on the south and west by the sea at Calmont Creek, and on the east by a line up the Calmont to the Watslod Creek, and down this last to the Bunce (which is in fact part of the Sierra Leone River) constituting a tract, eighteen miles from north to south and twelve from east to west. By a convention in 1819 between Sir C. M'Carthy and a Timmanee Chief, named Ka Konka, possessing country on the boundary of the peninsula, that chief ceded to Great Britain the unlimited sovereignty of the lands, known by the name of Mar Ports, and Roe Boness, situate on the banks of the Bunce

River. In 1824, Ba Mauro, King of the North Balloms, ceded to Great Britain the islands of Bance, Tasso, Tombo, and all the other islands on the north side of Sierra Leone, between Zogrine Point, and Ka Keeper Creek; as well as the north banks of the river for one mile inland from the river Conray Bay, on the West to the Ka Keeper Creek, on the east; with a right and title to the navigation of the River Sierra Leone, &c. On the North the boundaries touch the River Memgo or Little Learciss, in 8° 50′ north; on the south as far as the line which separates the King of Sherboro's territory from that of the Gallinos, in latitude 70° north embracing the estuary of the Sherboro and its tributaries; on the west the Atlantic, as far north as Sierra Leone River; and on the east an imaginary line, imperfectly defined.

Our possessions at Sierra Leone[1] extend over a mountainous tract of country, formed by two rivers, which nearly intersect it. The general appearance of this Sierra presents an outline of an irregular congeries of conical mountains, with valleys and prairies in their interstices; the mountains are covered to their summits with lofty forests, giving to the distant scenery a beautiful, rich, and romantic appearance; the territory on the north side of the river is however low and flat. Many streams of water descend from the hills, and are concentrated in a large basin, called the Bay of Franca, which is

[1] So called from the district having been the favourite resort of lions.

considered the best watering place along the whole line of coast.

The river called Sierra Leone is more properly speaking an estuary, about twenty miles in length, and varying in breath from ten at its entrance, between Leopard's Island and Cape Sierra Leone, to about four miles at the island Tombo, where it terminates: it has several arms, which extend themselves in different directions; the Rokell River is, however, the only one which offers the advantage of water communication for any considerable distance into the interior; its source being stated to be within 30 miles of Fallaba, and 200 from Sierra Leone; falls or rapids intercept its course at Rocon, 50 or 60 miles from Freetown. The Kates River, 25 miles from Freetown, is navigable for boats upwards of 70 miles.

Freetown, the capital, is built upon the south side of the Sierra Leone River, and at the north extremity of the peninsula. It is five miles from Cape Sierra Leone, which is considered to mark on the south as Leopard Island does on the north the entrance of the river, to which the access is easy and safe. Immediately in front of the town, the river forms a bay, where there is good and commodious anchorage for vessels of all classes, and timber ships, of 400 or 500 tons' burden go with facility nearly 20 miles higher up the stream for the purpose of taking in their cargoes.

The settlement has the advantage of a modern plan for its formation; it occupies a large space of

ground, extending in a very gentle ascent from the banks of the river, and is about three-quarters of a mile long, with spacious streets, intersecting each other at right angles. Most of the houses were at first built of mud or wood, not however without taste, but many of the natives are now constructing storehouses.

The town is open to the river on the north, but on the south-east and west completely hemmed in by a semicircular range of mountains, from 12 to 1500 feet high, and wooded to the summit. The distance between the town and the base of these mountains varies from three-quarters to a mile and a half, the intervening space broken by numerous undulations, the outline exhibiting the appearance of a sylvan theatre, replete with highly picturesque scenery. With the exception of the cultivated spots the hills are thickly clothed to their summit with wood, and ascend almost in regular gradation towards Leicester Mountain, above which the Sugar-loaf is seen to rise at some distance in the rear. The amphitheatre includes, from east to west, a space, the semi-diameter of which is nearly a mile, embracing the town, the Tower Hill, and a small portion of land, called 'King Tom's Point.' The Tower Hill is nearly in the centre of this amphitheatre, and Freetown stretches from the water-side towards its base; about half way up its sides are situate the fort, the barracks, hospital, and a Martello tower, the whole when viewed from the sea forming a striking *coup d'œil*.

Throughout the peninsula several villages have

been formed at the following periods: in 1809, Leicester; 1812, Regent; 1816, Gloucester; 1817, Kissey and Leopold; 1818, Charlotte, Wilberforce, and Bothwell; 1819, Kent, York, Wellington, Waterloo. These villages are generally situate in different parts of the mountain, but all connected by good roads with each other, and with Freetown, the capital.

The Bannana Islands, two in number, south-west of Freetown, may be termed one island, six miles in length and one in breadth, and were ceded to the crown in 1819 by the family of the Caulkers, who receive for them an annual payment.

The Isles de Los, in north latitude 9° 16′; west longitude 16°, five in number, are situate about sixty miles to the northward of Sierra Leone, and five or six miles from the coast, and were ceded to Great Britain by the Chief, Dalla Mahomeda, to whom an annual payment is made for them. Factory Island, the second in extent, is four and a half long, by half a mile broad: they are however very valuable for the trade which is from them carried on with the rivers of the adjacent continent, consisting in the exchange of British goods for hides, ivory, gold dust, &c. There is also a considerable commerce in rice on this part of the coast, some of which is exported by the traders at Sierra Leone to the West Indies, but the quality is much injured by the imperfect process in use amongst the natives for cleaning it. British factories have recently been established in several of the rivers between the Gambia and Sierra Leone, particularly at the Rio

Nunez, Scarces, &c.; but, unfortunately, the progress of lawful commerce is much impeded in this as in many other parts of the coast by the slave trade, which is carried on by the Spaniards and Portuguese to a very considerable extent, and with little interruption, as this part of the coast is seldom visited by the ships of our squadron appointed to suppress the trade. They cruize chiefly in the bight of Benin, leaving the windward coast from the Gambia to Sierra Leone without protection. There should never be less than one vessel in that quarter, and one vessel could do little more than mitigate the evil. The trade is carried on with so much cunning in fast-sailing vessels, so well adapted to the iniquitous object, that few of them are taken compared with the numbers that escape. A steam-boat in that part of the coast would afford by far the cheapest and most effectual check to the traffic.

The Gambia.—St. Mary's Island (our principal settlement on the Gambia) lies quite close to the continent[1] on the south side, running nearly east and west about fifteen miles, but of very inconsiderable breadth, and commanding the entrance to the river Gambia. The island is an uninterrupted flat, somewhat elevated, and covered with a thick brush of underwood, denoting the fertility of the soil.

Bathurst town is built on the east side of the island, on a point which admits of a strong battery, being surrounded on nearly three sides by the tolerably deep and rapid river. The strata is a gravelly

[1] Cattle can cross over at low water to Cape St. Mary's.

soil, consisting of the brown oxyd of iron strewn over a stratum of rock of the same composition; the other parts of the island consist, principally, of a rich, dark, loamy mould.

The river from which the settlement derives its name, empties itself into the ocean by a mouth about nine miles wide between Cape St. Mary on the south and the Bird's island on the north. It was formerly supposed to be a branch of the Niger, but this notion was refuted by Mr. Park. Its sources have never been explored by European travellers, but it has been ascertained to take its rise amongst the lofty range of mountains which form the eastern front of Foota falls. It communicates with the Senegal River by the Neriko, and is called by the natives River Ba Deema in the upper country. Vessels of 300 tons navigate it for sixty leagues, and smaller vessels as far as Barraconda, 250 leagues from the entrance; here the obstructions commence which render further navigation impossible. From December to June, which is the dry season, the flow of the tide is felt, but in the rainy season, from June to September, the stream sets down so strong, that vessels cannot stem the current by ordinary means; though no doubt advantage might be taken of navigating by steam throughout the year.

Colonel Findlay, the late intelligent and humane Governor of the Gambia, has justly observed to me that it is greatly to be lamented the British government have not yet surveyed the various large rivers and creeks which empty themselves into the Gambia; if this were accomplished there can be no doubt

but an extensive inland navigation would follow, which would increase the trade, by affording a more ready and friendly intercourse with the natives.

There are two channels into the Gambia, the northernmost of which has six or seven fathoms water, is six miles wide, and lies between the Bird's Island and the Banguion bank; the smaller, on the other side of the bank and under Cape St. Mary, has about nine feet water. The river is at all times muddy, and is infested with crocodiles, and also inhabited by the hippopotamus. It abounds with fish of various kinds.

There are several establishments on the Gambia belonging to Great Britain, as well as Bathurst. Macarthy's Island is up the river, more than 300 miles. Fort James is situated on an island about thirty miles up the river; it is only 200 yards long and 50 broad, and was, formerly, strongly fortified, but the French, on capturing it in 1688, destroyed the works, which have never been entirely restored. Opposite Fort James on the north bank is Jillifree, in a healthy situation, and surrounded by a fertile district. On the south bank are Vintain, Tancrowal, and Jouka Konda, the first two, the second twelve leagues from Fort James, and the last, considerably up the river. About a league above Fort James on the south side the River Bittan flows into the Gambia, and this is at all times navigable for large boats to the village of that name, inhabited by African Portuguese. The sovereignty of a tract of country (one mile inland from the beach between Burragadoo Creek and Junkarda Creek) was ceded to the King of Great Britain by treaty with the King and Chiefs of

Barra, signed at Jillifree, 15th June, 1826, a small spot of 400 yards by 300 yards called Albredar, near James's Island, excepted. This tract is extremely valuable from its position on the left bank of the river Gambia, opposite St. James and St. Mary's islands, giving us a control of the navigation of the stream from its entrance to James's island.

The French have a factory called Albredar, about three miles below Jillifree, which they retain possession of, in defiance of the treaty of 1783 (confirmed by the treaty of Paris), and despite the repeated remonstrances of the English Government. The following is the article of the treaty in question:—"Art. X. The most Christian King, on his part, guarantees to the King of Great Britain the possessions of Fort James and of the River Gambia." When Senegal and Goree fell into our hands by conquest, during the last war, in 1809, the commerce of the Gambia was carried on by the English traders exclusively from Goree. On the restoration of those places to the French by the treaty of Paris, exclusive possession of the Gambia was reassured to us on the same footing as by the treaty of 1783, and our settlement at Cape St. Mary's was immediately formed for the protection of its trade. Shortly afterwards the French, for the purpose of securing a footing in the river, dispatched an agent from Goree to establish a trading post, or *comptoir*, as they call it, at Albredar, under pretence of their having formerly had a *comptoir* at that place. Unfortunately this was not resisted at the time by the English commandant, Col. Grant, for want of sufficient information on the nature of the

treaties, and every attempt made since to dislodge them by fair means, has failed of success. It is but justice to our government to add, that the most persevering remonstrances have been addressed in vain to the French government on this subject.

Akin to this conduct on the part of the French is their behaviour in respect to our right by treaty to carry on the gum trade with the Moors at Portindic. That right is solemnly guaranteed to us by the treaty of 1783, (since confirmed by the treaty of Paris), in the following words of Art. XI. " As to the gum trade, the English shall have the right of carrying it on from the mouth of the river St. John, to the Bay and Fort of Portindic inclusively: provided that they shall not form any permanent settlement of whatsoever nature in the said river St. John, upon the coast or in the Bay of Portindic."

Nothing can be more clear and definite than this article of the treaty, which has been faithfully adhered to on our part; no permanent (nor even temporary) establishment having been formed by the English within the prescribed limits. But what has been the conduct of the French? During the gum trade of 1834, under pretence of a war with the Trazar tribe of Moors, from whom we obtain our supply of gum at Portindic, they sent from Senegal a naval force, and seized our vessels trading there; which, however, on the remonstrance of Lieutenant-Governor Rendall, they subsequently gave up, and it was supposed that the outrage would not be repeated. In this, however, the English traders have found themselves mistaken: the desire of the French

at Senegal to monopolize the gum trade is not to be restrained by the faith of treaties. The governor of Senegal has given notice to our governor at the Gambia that Portindic is this season[1] to be formally and effectively blockaded against our trade by French ships of war, and as the notice has not been given in time to prevent arrangements being made, and supplies being sent out for the trade of the season, very serious losses must be sustained by the merchants engaged in the trade. Parallel to this is the conduct of the French, in respect to the fisheries at Newfoundland, as explained in the volume referring to that colony, where, in defiance of the faith of treaties and of common justice, they deny us the right of fishing on the coast of our own colony! How long are these encroachments to be submitted to?

The trade of the Gambia has recently suffered severely from outrages committed up the river by a native chief, who has seized and plundered the trading vessels belonging to the merchants at Bathurst. The most valuable part of our traffic is carried on high up the river, above Macarthy's Island, where no protection by government has yet been provided for the trade. This, by means of block houses, might be afforded at a small expense, which the value of the trade would amply repay. The immense extent of the River Gambia, and the thickly populated and fertile country through which it has its course, will render it, ultimately, the most valuable of our possessions in that quarter of the world.

[1] 1835.

We now approach the Gold Coast, the British forts and stations on which are at Dix Cove, Sucundee, Comenda, Cape Coast Castle, Annamaboo, Tantum, Winnebah, and Accra; of these only a few here require notice.

Dix Cove, is a few miles to leeward of Cape Three Points, affording only shelter to boats of fifteen or twenty tons' burthen, but yielding much gold of a fine quality.

Cape Coast Castle (long the seat of the British government on the Gold Coast, and residence of the chief governor during the sovereignty of the late African Company), stands upon a rock of gneis and mica slate, about twenty feet above the level of the sea, in latitude 5° 6′ north, longitude 1° 10′ west.

It may be considered the centre capital between Sierra Leone and the Bights of Benin and Biafra; as also the great emporium of trade for the introduction of British manufactures, and the obtaining gold dust, palm oil, and ivory.

The castle is an irregular figure of four sides, with four bastions at each angle; the whole mounting about eighty pieces of cannon. Two-thirds of the walls of the fortress are washed by the very heavy sea which invariably runs along this line of coast, and it is well protected on the land side.

Within the castle is an extensive line of spacious buildings, three stories high, running north and south, dividing the fort into nearly two equal parts, and containing the government-house, &c.; a nearly similar structure runs east, forming a triangular space of considerable extent.

The Cape, on which the castle stands, is an angular promontory, bounded by the sea on the south and east sides. It was originally settled by the Portuguese, but the Dutch dispossessed them in a few years, and took great pains to strengthen the fortifications. Admiral Holmes captured it, and demolished the citadel in 1661, since which time it has remained in the possession of Great Britain, having been confirmed by the treaty of Breda. When the Dutch Admiral De Ruyter destroyed all the English factories along the coast in 1665, this place withstood his utmost endeavours, although he attacked it with thirteen men of war. The Company, who obtained a charter in 1672, subsequently added greatly to its strength by building some bastions, though the fort is considered to be too near the town, and commanded by some of the houses. Smollett, in his History of England, relates a circumstance relative to this castle deserving notice here.

In 1757, the French, in furtherance of the plan which they have ever sedulously pursued—the ruin of the British Colonies—sent a naval commander named De Kersin, to reduce our forts on the coast of Western Africa. The chief aim was to capture Cape Coast Castle, for its conquest would lead to the relinquishment of all the minor forts. When Mr. Bell, the governor, received intelligence that M. de Kersin was only a few leagues to windward, his whole force did not exceed thirty white, a few mulatto soldiers, half a barrel of gunpowder, and a few crazy guns: Mr. Bell immediately provided gunpowder, and about fifty Europeans, from some vessels on

the coast, mounted a few spare cannon upon a temporary battery, assembled 1200 armed negroes, under the command of their chief, received the French squadron, consisting of two ships of the line and a large frigate, and poured such a steady and well-directed fire for two hours into M. Kersin's fleet, that the latter thought it most prudent to make sail for the West Indies, without inflicting any great damage on the castle.

Cape Coast Castle was originally surrounded with wood, but a large tract of country has been now cleared and rendered fit for cultivation.

The native towns on the sea coast are generally built close to the walls of the European forts; the houses are principally constructed of mud, and covered with Guinea grass, and so crowded together as to render it almost impossible to pass through the spaces allotted for streets; ventilation is of course quite out of the question, and as the inhabitants are filthy beyond description, their villages are productive of much disease, not only to themselves, but to those Europeans who happen to reside near them.

To this description, Cape Coast Town is, however, an exception; streets are *now* formed, immense masses of filth have been removed, the surrounding hills have been cleared of their luxuriant foliage, roads have been cut, and the *tout ensemble* presents prospects of gratifying improvement.

About five miles north-west from Cape Coast Castle is a small river, running in a southerly direction, and emptying itself into the sea within two

miles of Elmina, forming the boundary between the Dutch and British possessions[1].

At a distance of about two miles to leeward (eastward) a chain of hills, forming an irregular amphitheatre 160 feet above the level of the sea, commences and runs in a semicircular direction approaching the castle at some places within a quarter of a mile, and terminating on the shore about a mile to windward. There are no mountains within several miles of Cape Coast Castle, the highest land not being more than 200 feet above the sea; nor are there any plains of great extent; clumps of hills, with their corresponding valleys, are however every where to be seen covered with a most luxuriant foliage throughout the year. As far as the eye can reach the face of the country appears a continued forest, until the boundaries of the Winnebah and Accra territories are reached, where extensive verdant plains, are interspersed with clusters of trees; and chiefly indebted for their fertility to being annually overflowed during the rains.

Annamaboe, ten miles to eastward of Cape Coast Castle, is a good fortification, of a quadrangular form, built on the extreme margin of the shore, the sea washing the foot of the southern boundary wall, and

[1] The number of European stations on the Gold Coast was at one time considerable. From Apollonia to Accra, a distance of 64 leagues, there were, in 1808, of Dutch forts, 13, of Danish 4, and of British 10; namely, Apollonia, Dix Cove, Succondee and Commenda, to westward of Cape Coast Castle, and Annamaboe, Tantum Querry, Winnebah, Accra, Prampram and Whydah, to leeward of Cape Coast Castle.

the town of Annamaboe taking the form of a crescent, embraces it. Tantum and Winnebah require no separate notice.

ACCRA lies in 5° 33′ north latitude, and 0° 5′ west longitude; there are three settlements there, English, Dutch, and Danish. The view from seaward is picturesque, the houses white and regularly built, and in their rear a large plain, studded with 'bush,' or groves, of various foliage. As the voyager advances towards the River Succomo the prospect widens—and is finally bounded by high lands, whose slopes yield excellent sheep pasturage. The country around is in general a fine, open, and level land, with a sandy, red, and black soil or rich mould.

Accra carries on a considerable trade with the Ashantees, who bring ivory, gold dust, horses, &c. to exchange for romals, silks, tobacco, and rum, creating a considerable extent of business, for the Ashantees are a shrewd and intelligent people, well acquainted with the advantages of social intercourse, and greatly superior to the Fantees, and other waterside people. Indeed, it is a remarkable fact, that the people nearest the shore on the whole line of coast, are more treacherous, cowardly, and unprincipled, than those of the interior; a striking proof how little the natives have hitherto benefitted by their intercourse with the civilized nations of Europe while slavery existed. But the natives, near the British forts, are now receiving daily advantage and improvement from the residence and example of Europeans who are no longer, as formerly, engaged in the slave trade. Mr. President Maclean, the present governor

of Cape Coast Castle, has, I am informed, exerted himself with the most praiseworthy zeal and ability to wean the natives from many of their barbarous customs (that of human sacrifices, on the death of their kings and chiefs in particular, which were formerly sometimes performed within sight of the castle walls), in which he has been eminently successful, and for which he merits the thanks of every friend of humanity.

Mr. Sewell, who resided eighteen years at Cape Coast Castle, and who is now in London, says that he considers the natives on the Gold Coast more remarkable for their humanity than for their ferocity. It is true that under the influence of religious fanaticism they perpetrate (although now but seldom) human sacrifices; but during the eighteen years he resided on the coast he scarcely ever heard of a murder, or any other act of personal violence amongst the natives, and certainly fewer than amongst an equal given number of the inhabitants of any nation in Europe.

James Fort, Accra, belongs to the English;—not quite a cannon shot to leeward lies the dismantled Dutch fortification of Crevecœur; and about two and a half miles distant from James Fort is situated Christianborg Castle, built on a promontory, and the chief settlement in Western Africa belonging to the Danes.

CHAPTER II.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL—CLIMATE—DISEASE—VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL KINGDOM, &c.

Geology and Soil.—On this head, of course, nothing more than isolated facts can yet be expected. The soil in the vicinity of Sierra Leone consists chiefly of a slight stratum of brown gravel on a semi-vitrified rock of the same colour, containing a large portion of the oxide of iron. This is what is called the *brown* iron stone; the *red* iron stone is also found in extensive strata, but the *brown* appears to be the more prevailing one. Both these varieties of hæmatites are cellular throughout their entire substance, strongly indicating volcanic origin; they are intersected with yellow streaks, and kidney-shaped segments. Magnetic iron ore is found in the mountains in small detached masses. Some of the mountains are chiefly composed of granite, large blocks of which are frequently seen studding the surface of the plains. No limestone has hitherto been discovered in the colony, but fortunately there is a large abundance of fossil shells. Gold is abundant, as will be subsequently shewn by the quantities exported to England during the last three years.

There is very little difference in the soil of the coast from Cape Palmas to the River Volta; within five or six miles of the shore it is of a siliceous nature; the clumps of hills which are to be met with in every direction are composed principally of gneis and granite: mica slate is found to enter into the

composition of some at no great distance from Cape Coast Castle. These rocks, from containing large proportions of feldspar and mica, are rapidly passing into decomposition, more especially such as are exposed to the influence of air and water; the result of the decomposition is the formation of a clayey or an argillaceous soil.

As the sandy sea-coast is receded from, the soil is siliceous, mixed with decayed vegetable or animal matter, where no granite or micaceous rocks intervene; it is in the valleys where the rich alluvial soil is met with, formed of the disintegrated materials of the surrounding hills (washed down by the heavy torrents of rain) and deposited along with the vegetable decomposition, giving richness to the clayey mould. It is in such valleys, from ten to twelve miles inland, that the natives delight to make extensive plantations.

Climate.—According to the distance north or south of the equator, and to the elevation of the country, the temperature and seasons of course vary; on the north of the Equinoctial line May, June, July, August, September, and October, may be considered the wet winter months; and the remainder of the year the dry or summer months; harmattans and tornadoes are peculiar to the latter, and fogs to the former. The rains commence with the end of May or beginning of June, and terminate in August. October, November, and December are cold, with occasional fogs. The winds along the Gold Coast may be divided into the land and sea breezes, the former from the north-north-west generally, and the latter

from the south-west west-south-west generally; during the rains the land breezes are irregular. The land breeze generally continues from 9 A.M. to 7 P.M.

The range of the thermometer is not great; during 1819 it did not rise higher than 95°—the minimum being 76°, making a range of only 9°. In 1820 maximum 84°, minimum 74°, range 10°. In 1821 maximum 86°, minimum 66°, range 20°. In 1822 maximum 89°, minimum 74°, range 15°—and so on ever since, with this exception, that there is a visible change in the duration of the respective seasons; thus, as Dr. Tedlie in his valuable Report to the Army Medical Board observes, solar heat alone is not a cause of disease.

The range of the thermometer at Sierra Leone is very slight, and the average heat throughout the year is eighty-two. The rains continue for six months, and the torrents which pour down from the mountains deluge the plains beneath. The mountains in the vicinity of Free Town are now, however, generally cleared and cultivated, and the settlement is as healthy for European residents as any other tropical climate.

Meteorological Table, kept at the Military Hospital, Free Town.

	Fah. Therm.			Barometer.			Weather.			Pluviameter.	Remarks.
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Medium.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Medium.	Fair Days.	Wet Days.	Cloudy and Moist Days.	Inches and Decimals.	
January	87	81	82	30.10	29.10	29.86	31	...	...	Not accurately measured, on account of an accident which happened to the instrument.	N. W. or sea breeze in the afternoon; harmattan in the morning.
February	85	82	81	30.10	29.80	29.86	28	...	...		A few slight tornadoes with little rain; winds as above.
March	84	80	80	29.96	29.86	29.86	30	...	1		Winds as above; tornadoes.
April	84	78	80	29.90	29.86	29.85	26	...	4		Winds from N. W. to S. W.; ditto.
May	84	78	80	29.91	29.80	29.85	14	12	5		S. E. to S. W.; no tornadoes.
June	84	73½	78	30.30	29.85	29.86	14	13	3		Rain from S. E.
July	84	73½	78	30.30	29.85	29 92	5	23	3	45.44	Ditto; sultry and chilly.
August	81	74½	77	30.10	29.80	29.86	2	29	...	45.07	Ditto.
September	84	74	78	30.10	29.91	29.89	10	20	...	29.73	Five tornadoes, E. to S. W.
October	84	77	78	29.96	29.80	29.92	20	6	5	10.73	Cloudy; sultry days.
November	85	78	80	29.97	29.86	29.92	21	5	4	5.70	Ditto, ditto.
December	86	86	80	29.97	29.89	29.92	23	4	4	6.94	Ditto; thunder and lightning in the evening.

In the Annual Medical Report from the West African Stations for 1832[1], I find these remarks:

'*Sierra Leone.*—This station has continued during this year as during the two preceding years, to maintain its character for salubrity, the total number of casualties in the sick returns is eight; the strength being 446, and the total number of sick treated 230, of which last number (as in the preceding year) more than one-fifth were cases of sexual disease.'

Not only are febrile and other climatorial diseases less prevalent than formerly, but their type is of far greater mildness, and during the years 1831-32, and 1833, when most parts of the globe were suffering from cholera and other pestilential diseases, the British settlements in West Africa were in the enjoyment of perfect health.

The Deputy Inspector of Hospitals at West Africa, states in his official report, in reference to the causes of disease in Europeans—" Breakfast is taken at rising—at eleven A.M. they sit down to 'relish,' consisting of soups, meats, and the highest seasoned dishes; wine is drank as at dinner, and afterwards sangaree, or brandy and water, which too frequently they continue sipping and drinking till late in the afternoon, sometimes to the dinner hour." (6 P.M.) " In all the countries," says Dr. Nicoll, " which I have visited, I never saw so much eating and drinking."

The wet season, as in some parts of India, is

[1] Transmitted to the Army Medical Department.

usually ushered in by tremendous tornadoes[1], or violent gusts of wind, which come from the eastward, attended by thunder, lightning, and, in general, heavy rains. The violence of the wind seldom continues longer than half an hour; but the scene during the time it continues may be considered as one of the most awfully sublime in nature. Its approach is foretold by certain appearances, which enable people to be on their guard. A dark cloud, not larger than 'a man's hand,' is indistinctly observed on the verge of the eastern horizon. Faint flashes of lightning, attended sometimes by very distant thunder, are then seen to vibrate in quick succession. The clouds in that quarter become gradually more dense and black; they also increase in bulk, and appear as if heaped on each other. The thunder, which at first was scarcely noticed, or heard only at long intervals, draws nearer by degrees, and becomes more frequent and tremendous. The blackness of the clouds increases until a great part of the heavens seems wrapped in the darkness of midnight: and it is rendered still more awful, by being contrasted with a gleam of light which generally appears in the western horizon. Immediately before the attack of the tornado, there is either a light breeze, scarcely perceptible, from the westward, or, as is more common, the air is perfectly

[1] The harmattan, or north-east wind, generally blows once or twice in January and February; it is of extreme siccidity, and near the great desert of Sahara in particular, accompanied by a dense haze, occasioned by a vast quantity of impalpable powder floating in the gusty atmosphere.

calm and unusually still. Men and animals fly for shelter; and, while 'expectation stands in horror,' the thundering storm in an instant bursts from the clouds. It is impossible for language to convey a just idea of the uproar of the elements which then takes place.

The temperature of the air is greatly affected by a tornado (it becomes cool and clear); and it is not unusual for the thermometer to suffer a depression of eight or ten degrees within two or three minutes after the storm has come on. After a tornado, the body feels invigorated and more active, and the mind recovers much of that elasticity which long continued heat tends to impair.

Vegetable Kingdom.—From the River Senegal, in about 16° north latitude, to the Congo, which is in upwards of 6° south latitude, there is a remarkable uniformity of vegetation, not only as to principal orders and genera, but even to a considerable extent, in the species in which it consists[1]. Many of the trees, the palms, and several other remarkable plants, which characterise the landscape, as *Adansonia*, *Bombax pentandrum*, *Elais guineensis*, *Raphia vinifera*, and *Pandanus Candelabrum*, appear to be very general along the whole extent of coast. *Sterculia acuminata*, the seed of which is the *Cola*, mentioned in the earliest accounts of Congo, exists, and is equally valued in Guinea and Sierra Leone, and, what is re-

[1] I am indebted to Murray's descriptive geography for a collection of data relative to the vegetable and animal kingdoms of this coast.

markable, it bears the same name throughout the west coast. The ordeal tree, called by Professor Smith *Cassa*, and by Captain Tuckey, erroneously, *Acassia;* if not absolutely the same plant as the red water tree at Sierra Leone and the Gold Coast, belongs at least to the same genus. A species of the cream fruit, remarkable in affording a wholesome and pleasant saccharine fluid, used by the natives of Sierra Leone to quench their thirst, though belonging to that generally deleterious family the *Apocyneæ*, is also met with. The *Sarcocephalus* of *Afzelius*, which is probably what he has noticed under the name of the country-fig of Sierra Leone, is found on the banks of the Congo. *Anona senegalensis*, whose fruit, though smaller than that of the cultivated species, is said to have a flavour superior to them all, and appears to be a general plant along the whole extent of coast: and *Chrysobalanus Icaco*, or a nearly allied species, is equally common from Senegal to Congo.

The trunk of the *Dracæna Draco* cleaves open in many parts, and distils, at the time of the summer solstice, a fluid, which condenses into red tears, soft at first, afterwards hard and friable : this is the true dragon's blood of the shops, and must not be confounded, though dry, friable, blood-red, and inflammable, with other resinous substances, known under the same name, and derived, the one from a species of *Calamus* (*Rotang*), and the other from a *Pterocarpus*. To the dragon's blood are attributed astringent, desiccatory, and incrassating virtues. It is administered internally for dysentery, hæmorrhage, violent

bowel complaints, and inward ulcers; and externally, to dry up running sores, to heal wounds, and to strengthen the gums. The painters make use of it, in the red varnish with which they colour the Chinese boxes and chests. Mr. Sewel informs me that the castor nut grows abundantly in the neighbourhood of Cape Coast Castle, and also on most parts of the Western Coast.

The esculent plants of the Congo, cultivated, as well as indigenous, are very similar throughout the west coast. On the banks of rivers the principal articles of vegetable food are the Indian corn, or Maize (*Zea Mays*) *Cassava*, both sweet and bitter (*Jatropha Manihot*), two kinds of pulse extensively cultivated; the *Cytisus Cajan* and a *Phaseolus* (?), with ground nuts (*Arachis hypogæa*). The most valuable fruits are plaintains (*Musa sapientum*), the papaw (*Carica Papaya*), pumpkins (*Cucurbita Pepo*), limes and oranges, pine apples, the common tamarind, and safu, a fruit the size of a small plum. One of the most important plants, not only of the Congo, but of the whole extent of coast, is *Elais guineensis*, or the oil palm, which also affords the best palm wine. The palm tree is truly called the '*native's friend;*' it supplies wine, oil, fishing-lines, hats, baskets, palm nuts, cabbage, tinder, &c. &c. The wine is obtained by driving a hard peg or a gimlet into the cabbage-like head of the palm, when a stream of sweet liquor flows into a calabash suspended beneath, and by the time it is filled (six to eight hours) fermentation has reduced the whole into a milky tinted pleasant beverage; the natives,

sometimes, allow it to have a harsh and bitter flavour; the process and liquor is, in fact, somewhat similar to that obtained from the cocoa nut blossom, and termed *toddy*. Wine is likewise obtained from two other palms. Among the other alimentary plants, of less importance, or imperfectly known, are the shrubby holcus, the common yam, and another *dioscorea*, found wild only, and very inferior to the yam, requiring it is said, four days' boiling to free it from its pernicious qualities. Two kinds of sugar canes, capsicums, and tobacco are generally cultivated, according to the herbarium of Captain Tuckey. A second kind of ground nut, orpea (*Glycine subterranea?*), which is extensively grown at Madagascar, also appears. A species of ximenia (*X. americana?*) is likewise found, the fruit yellow, the size of a plum, and acid, but not unpleasant, in the higher parts of the Congo, where it is generally planted. An antidesma, perhaps like that mentioned by Afzelius, as having a fruit of the same size and taste as a currant, is met with.

The edible fruits[1] of Sierra Leone are numerous and luscious. The peach of the negroes (*Sarcocephalus esculentus*) is a large, fleshy, and solid fruit, hard and eatable throughout, and full of small seeds, not much unlike a strawberry in flavour and consistence. The tree grows plentifully throughout

[1] Drawn up by J. Sabine, Esq. from the Journal and notes of Mr. George Don, who was engaged by the London Horticultural Society to make a collection of the useful vegetables in Western Africa.

the colony of Sierra Leone, ten to fifteen feet high; leaves large and elliptical, flowers pink, produced in globular heads, and seated on a receptacle, which afterwards becomes the fruit. The *Anona senegalensis*, or African custard apple, fruit not much larger than a pigeon's egg, and with the same or a superior flavour to the rest of the species. The monkey-bread (*Adansonia digitata*) is much used by the negroes; its fruit, which is of considerable size, and of an oblong shape, is full of seeds, and tastes like gingerbread, with a pleasant acid flavour. The locust tree of Sierra Leone (*Inka biglobosa*) is a beautiful tree when in blossom, covered with compact biglobular heads of fine vermillion-coloured flowers, which are succeeded by compact bunches of pods, containing a yellow farinaceous substance, of which the natives are very fond. It is mentioned by Park as affording an agreeable and nutritive food. The country cherry is rare, growing on the mountains, and bearing a small oval reddish fruit, somewhat like a plum in flavour, and produced in clusters on the topmost branches. *Anisophyllea laurina*, the monkey apple, is a fruit of the size of a pigeon's egg, red on one side and yellow on the other, with a flavour between the nectarine and plum. Country grapes are the produce of *Vitis cæsia*, they are black, austere, and acid; chiefly eaten by the negroes. Country currants resemble elder-berries, and are found plentifully on the mountains. The shrub (*Fiscus Brassii*), which bears the large fig, grows about the colony; fruit pleasant: as is also a smaller fig, that bears abundantly, and is the size of a hazel nut. Wild guavas

(*Psidium pyriferum*) are natives of the country: Mr. Don saw and tasted the fruit, but could not exactly identify the plant with the West Indian guava. The hog plum is the fruit of *Spondinus Myrobalanus;* it is well tasted, and sharper than the plum of our gardens, but the stone forms half the bulk of the fruit. The grey plum tree (*Parinarium excelsum*) is more valuable for its compact and durable wood than for the fruit, which, though large and abundant, is dry and farinaceous, with a very large stone; an allied species (*P. macrophyllum*) is called by the colonists, ginger-bread-plum. Of four other fruits, called plums, the small pigeon plum (*Chrysobalanus ellipticus*), the yellow pigeon plum (*C. luteus*), the black plum (*Vitex umbrosa*), and the sugar plum; it may be said that the first three, though good, are inferior to the latter, which is sold in large quantities in Sierra Leone, and is one of the very best fruits in the colony. The tree is very handsome, sixty feet high, and bears many fruits of the size of a bullace; at ten feet from the ground the stem throws out roots like a mangrove or pandanus, but its botanical affinities are not known. From the fruit of the sweet pishamin (*Carpodinus dulcis*), a quantity of sweet milky juice exudes, the pulp is also pleasant and sweet. The sour pishamin (*C. acidus*) though sharp, acid, and rather bitter, is much relished by the natives. The Mammee apple (*Mammea africana*) is a lofty tree, with useful wood, and a very large fruit. The butter and tallow tree (*Pentadesma butyracea*) abounds in a yellow greasy juice, to which it owes its name, and which is given

out plentifully when the fruit is cut; this is mixed by the natives with their food, on account of its turpentine flavour, which renders it disagreeable to the European settlers. Two kinds of star apple *(Chrysophyllum macrophyllum* and *C. obvatum)* are very inferior to the West Indian star apple *(C. Cainito)*. *Tonsella pyriformis* bears a rich and sweet fruit, like a bergamot pear. There is a tree, called pomegranate, said to be excellent: but having no affinity to *punica*. The seeds of *Sterculia acuminata* are called cola by the negroes, who hold them in great esteem, as possessing the same virtues as Peruvian bark. They are like horsechesnuts, and produced in pods, which grow two to five together. A somewhat similar seed, named tola, is used in the same way. Velvet tamarinds, the fruit of *Codarium acutifolium* are produced in beautifully black velvety pods, and possess an agreeably acid taste, while brown tamarinds differ little, except in the colour and larger size of the pods.

Pine apples both grow wild and are cultivated by natives: they abound in the woods so as to obstruct the passage through them in every direction, shooting most vigorously, and yielding fruit abundantly. Two kinds only, the black and white, are grown at Sierra Leone: though not so large as those cultivated in England, the flavour is superior. The wild varieties are innumerable; and a very pleasant kind of wine is made in the colony from the juice.

Besides the fruits already mentioned as found wild near Sierra Leone, the following are cultivated: plantains *(Musa sapientum)*, bananas *(M. para-*

disiaca); the cocoa nuts are still rare, and papaws *(Carica papaya)* are only seen near the settlers' houses. Oranges are abundant, and have now grown wild; lemons are rare, but limes plentiful. Cashew nuts have been cultivated in large quantities of late: rose apples *(Eugenia Jambos)*, and tamarinds from the West Indies, love apples *(Solanum Lycopersicon)*, melons, water melons, cucumbers, gourds, &c., of many kinds and qualities; among the melons some, which having the smell of musk, are called musk melons. Two sorts of capsicum are grown.

The Baobab, or Monkey Bread, above mentioned *(Adansonia digitata)*, may be deemed one of the most valuable productions of Western Africa. It is likewise said to be found in Egypt and Abyssinia, and is cultivated in many of the warmer parts of the world. It is the largest known tree; its trunk being sometimes no less than thirty feet in diameter. At one year old, its diameter is one inch, and its height five inches: at thirty years old, when the diameter has attained to two feet, the height is but twenty-two feet; and so on, till at 1000 years old, the Baobab is fourteen feet broad, and fifty-eight feet high, and at 5000 years [1], the growth laterally has so outstripped

[1] I have met with this gigantic tree of a vast size in several parts of Eastern Africa, particularly near Mombas. The Chapultepee, in Mexico *(Cupresses districha L.)* which is 117 feet in circumference may be still more aged than the Baobab, whose duration of vitality is said to be indicated by rings of annual growth; but physiologists have recently ascertained that the number of concentric rings in a tree is owing very much to the soil and climate in which it grows, and to the nature of the tree itself.

its perpendicular progress, that the trunk will be thirty feet in diameter, and only seventy-three feet in height. The roots are of a most extraordinary length; in a tree with a stem seventy-seven feet round, the main branch, or tap root, measures 110 feet in length. The foliage is not so abundant as to conceal the vast proportion of the trunk; but it often happens that the profusion of leaves and of drooping boughs almost hide the stem, and the whole forms an hemispherical mass of verdure, 140 to 150 feet in diameter, and sixty to seventy feet high. The wood is pale coloured, light, and soft, so that in Abyssinia, the wild bees perforate it, and lodge their honey in the hollow, which honey is considered the best in the country. The negroes on the western coast apply these trunks to a singular purpose. The tree is liable to be attacked by a fungus, which, vegetating in the woody part, without changing the colour or appearance, destroys life, and renders the part so attacked as soft as the pith of trees in general. Such trunks are then hollowed into chambers, and within them are suspended the dead bodies of those to whom are refused the honour of burial. There they become mummies, perfectly dry and well preserved, without further preparation or embalming, and are known by the name of Guiriots. The Baobab, like all plants of the same order *(Malvaceæ)*, is emollient and mucilaginous. The pulverised leaves constitute *lalo*, a favourite article with the natives, which they mix with their daily food to diminish excessive perspiration, and which is even used by Europeans in fevers, diarrhœas, &c. The fruit is

perhaps the most useful part of this tree; its pulp is acid and agreeable, and the juice expressed from it, mixed with sugar, constitutes a drink that is deemed a specific in putrid and pestilential fevers. Owing to these circumstances, the fruit forms an article of commerce. Bowdich mentions that it possesses such an agreeable flavour, and is so abundant, that it constitutes a principal article of food with the natives, who season many of their dishes with it, especially their corn gruel. The Mandingoes convey it to the eastern and southern districts of Africa, and through the medium of the Arabs, it reaches Morocco, and even Egypt.

If the fruit be injured, it is burned, the ashes being mixed with rancid palm oil, and serving for soap. The flowers are large, white, and handsome, and on their first expansion, bear some resemblance, in their snowy petals and violet mass of stamens, to the white poppy *(Papaver somniferum)*. Both the flowers and fruit are pendant. The Baobab tree loses its leaves before the periodical rains come on.

The Arachis hypogæa deserves notice on account of the singular economy of its fruits. It belongs to the very few plants which mature their seeds under ground; the flower-stalk, after the blossom has withered, bending downwards, and burying the germen in the soil, where it soon increases in bulk, and perfectly ripens. The fruit is a pod, containing one or two seeds, the size of small nuts, with a flavour of almonds; the natives of several countries eat them, either boiled or fried, and make very pleasant confections of them, the taste resembling

chocolate. A valuable oil is also extracted from the seeds of the Arachis, alike useful in food and for supplying lamps, as it never turns rancid. Many attempts have been made to naturalise this plant in Europe; but the climate is too cold for it every where north of the southern coast of France.

List of plants common to Equinoctial Africa, America, and Asia[1].—Gleichenia Hermanni Prodr. Flor. *Nov. Holl.;* Mertensia dichotoma, *Willd.;* Agrostis Virginica, *L.;* Cyperus articulatus, *L.*; Cyperus niloticus, *Vahl.* ead. sp.; Lipocarpha argentea, *Nob.;* Hypælyptum argenteum, *Vahl.*; Fuirena umbellata, *L. fil.*; Pistia Stratiotes, *L.;* Boerhaavia mutabilis, Prodr. Flor. *Nov. Holl.;* Ipomœa pes capræ, *Nob.;* Convolvulus pes capræ, *L.*, convolvulus Brasiliensis, *L.* ead. sp.; Ipomœa pentaphylla, *Jacqu.;* Scoparia dulcis, *L.;* Heliotropium indicum, *L.*; Sphenoclea zeylanica, *Goerb.;* Ageratum conyzoides. *L.*; Waltheria indica, *L.*, Waltheria americana, *L.* ead. sp.; Hibiscus liliaceus, *L.*; Sida periplocifolia, *L.*; Cassia occidentalis, *L.*; Guilandina Bonduc, *L.*, Guilandina Bonducella, *L.*, ead. sp.; Abrus precatorius, *L.* ; Hedysarum triflorum, *L.*

Plants common to Equinoctial Africa and America; but not found in India.—Octoblepharum albidum, *Heda.;* Acrostichum aureum, *L.*; Eragrostis ciliaris, *L.;* Poa ciliaris, *L.*; Cyperus ligularis, *L.*; Schwenkia americana, *L.*; Hyptis obtusifolia, *Nob.;* Struchium (americanum) Bejam. 312; Sida juncea Banks. et Soland. *Mss. Brasil.;* Urena americana, *L.*, Urena

[1] From Tuckey's voyage up the Congo.

reticulata, *Cavan.* ead. sp.; Malachra radiata, *L.*; Jussiaea erecta, *L.*; Crotalaria axillaris, *Hort. Kew.* et *Willd.;* Pterocarpus lunatus, *L.*

Plants common to Equinoctial Africa and India; but not found in America.—Roccella fuciformis *Achar. Lichenog.* 440; Perotislatifolia Soland. in *Hort. Kew.;* Centotheca lappacea, *Beauw.;* Eleusine indica, *Gært.;* Flagellaria indica, *L.*; Gloriosa superba, *L.*; Celosia argentea, *L.*; Celosia margaritacea, *L.*, Celosia albida? *Willd.;* ead. sp.; Desmochæta lappacea Decand.; Grangea (maderaspatana) *Adans.;* Lavenia erecta, *Sw.;* Oxystelma esculentum, *Nob.*, Periploca esculenta, *Roxb.*, Nymphæa lotus, *L.*, Nymphæa pubescens, *Willd.*, ead. sp.; Hibiscus surattensis, *L.*; Leca sambucina, *L.*; Hedysarum pictum, *L.*; Indigofera lateritia, *Willd.;* Glinus lotoides, *L.*

List of species which have not been satisfactorily ascertained.—Acrostichum alcicorne, *Sw.;* Acrostichum stemaria, *Beauv.;* Imperata cylindrica, Prodr. Flor. *Nov. Holl.;* Panicum crus-galli, *L.*; Typha angustifolia, *L.*; Giseckia pharnaceoides, *L.*; Cassytha pubescens, Prodr. Flor. *Nov. Holl.;* Celtis orientalis, *L.*; Cardiospermum grandiflorum, *Lw.*; Paullina pinnata, *L.*; Hydrocotyle Asiatica, *L.*; Hedysarum adscendens, *Sw.*; Hedysarum vaginale, *L.*; Pterocarpus Ecastophyllum, *L.*

The native names of the different species of timber exported from the River Sierra Leone for ship building and carpenter's work are—1. Co-Tartosar, or African oak; 2. Tolongah, or brimstone; 3. Bumia, rather scarce; 4. Cooper; 5. Kon; 6. Conta; 7. Roth; 8. Wossomah; 9. Jumo; 10. Backam; 11. Toper-

canico; 12 Mooll, the tree produces vegetable butter; 13. Sop; 14. Kelill; 15. Cong; 16. African almond; 17. Bombay; 18. Dye-wood; 19. Pissaman; 20. Pissaman, (no marine animal of any kind attacks it); 21. black oak; 22. Wismore; 23. African cedar; 24. White wismore; 25. Cronko; 26. Shiu-shinginara; 27. blue Wismore; 28. Arwoora; 29. African mammee apple; 30. Catepy; 31. Lowland box-wood; 32. Singa-singa marah; 33. African pine; 34. Highland box-wood; 35. Singuoora; 36. Cabooco; 37. Brimstone; 38. Bessey; 39. African mulberry; 40. Mangrove. The grain of several of these woods is very rich, and the furniture made therefrom not only durable but extremely beautiful. In Mr. Forster's elegant mansion at Hampstead, there are several articles of furniture made from African mahogany, which would vie with the wood of any country in the world: and for ship-building the African teak is now generally and deservedly esteemed.

Animal Kingdom.—Of this interesting department of natural history little is yet known, owing to our slight knowledge of the interior; the species yet seen are principally those met with around the European settlements on the coast. In the following lists are enumerated the chief quadrupeds of Western Africa, arranged under those countries where they have been particularly observed:—

Senegal. Cercopithecus ruber, Red Monkey; Cercopithecus sabæus, Green Monkey; Megaderma frons, Foliaceous Bat; Taphozous senegalensis, Senegal Bat; Oryx besoastica *Sm.*, Senegal Oryx; Gazella

dama *Sm.*, Swift Antelope; Cercopithecus petaurista, Vaulting Monkey.

Guinea. Cercopithecus nictitans, White-nosed Monkey; Cercopithecus petaurista, Vaulting Monkey; Cercopithecus diana, Palatine Monkey; Cercocebus fuliginosus, Smokey Monkey; Cercocebus æthiops, Ethiopian Monkey; Cyanocephalus papio, Guinea Baboon; Papio Mormon, Mandrill; Papio sylvicola, Wood Baboon; Canis cancrivorous, Crab-eating Wolf.

Sierra Leone and Congo. Simia troglodytes, Chimpanzee; Colobuspolycomos, Full-bottom Monkey; Gazella mytelopes, *Sm.*, Broad-footed Antelope; Antilope redunca, Nagor Antelope; Cephalophus sylvicultrix, *Sm.*, Bush Antelope; Cephalophus quadriscopa *Sm.*, Four-tufted Antelope; Cephalophus mergens, Duckre Antelope; Cephalophus Grimmia, Guinea Antelope; Cephalophus Maxwellii, *Sm.*, Maxwell's Antelope; Cephalophus Philantomba, *Sm.*, Sierra Leone Antelope; Tragelophus phalerata, *Sm.*, Ribbed Antelope.

Lions, elephants, panthers, buffaloes, hippopotami, and deer abound. The most interesting quadrupeds of Senegal appear to be the Red Monkey, the Green Monkey, and the two antelopes, named Dama and Scripta. M. Adanson says, that the *Red Monkey* is a pretty animal, but capricious, mischievous, little susceptible of attachment, and possessing the distinguishing characteristic of the monkey tribes, curiosity in a remarkable degree. During his aquatic excursion, they descended from the tops of the trees to the extremity of the branches, earnestly noticing, and apparently much amused by, the boats passing

up the river. After a time they took courage, and began to pelt the travellers with pieces of wood, thus provoking a most unequal contest. Upon being fired upon, they uttered the most frightful cries, and although many were killed, the survivors returned to the contest with redoubled courage, and with a most determined spirit: some flung stones at their adversaries, while others even collected their own excrements for the same purpose.

The *Green Monkey*, is so named from the upper parts being of a greenish yellow colour: the lower are greyish; tail terminated by a long pencil of yellow hairs; face, ears, and hands black; this species are in immense numbers. They remain on the trees in large troops, and preserve the most profound silence, even when they are wounded. Adanson did not at first notice them, from the similarity of their colour to that of the foliage, until they suddenly began flinging at him pieces of the dead branches; and although he killed twenty-three of them in less than an hour, they did not appear in the least frightened by the discharge of his guns. In confinement, it is stated by M. Cuvier to be remarkably beautiful and gentle; fond of being caressed by those it knows, and seldom exhibiting any malicious propensity: when fully contented, it expresses satisfaction by a peculiar gentle grunt, which may be compared to the syllable *grau*.

The *Dama Antelope* so closely resembles the species so named by Mr. Rüppell, and found by him in the deserts of Nubia, that they are probably one and the same.

The *Harnessed Antelope* is a most beautiful animal, first noticed by Adanson by the native name of *Gerib*. It is about the size of a fallow deer: the ground colour of a bright bay, but marked with stripes in various directions, and with such regularity as to give the idea that a harness of some white material, was thrown over its body. Another species, closely resembling this, named the Ribbed Antelope (*A. phalerata*) inhabits the barren plains above the great falls of the Zezere, or Congo. Large baboons, of the most grotesque but repulsive forms, are common in this part of Africa.

The *Papiou, or Common Baboon,* is of a yellowish green, verging more or less to brown; visage black, and tail long; when adult, it is a most ferocious and disgusting animal. From the same country comes the Mandrill Baboon (*Simia Maimon* Lin.), of an olive colour; its chin has a small yellow beard, and the cheeks are naked, blue, and furrowed. In the adult males, the nose grows red, and the end is sometimes of a bright scarlet, while the buttocks are of a beautiful violet. M. Cuvier well remarks that it is impossible to conceive an animal more extraordinary and more hideous. It very nearly attains the height of a man, and is looked upon by the negroes with great fear.

The *Chimpanzee,* of all the apes yet discovered, makes the nearest approximation to the human form. It was designated by Linnæus as a variety of the human species, under the name of *Homo troglodytes*. The Chimpanzee appears to have an affinity, if not identity, with the large African apes so often men-

tioned by travellers, or to the Barris, or great Wild Man of the African woods. In size it exceeds that of the Orang-Otan, and exhibits the same docility, submissiveness, and gentleness. It is heard of more especially in Congo. The Perruque, or Full-bottomed Monkey (*Colobus polycomos* Geof.) has the neck furnished with a variegated mane of long hair, fancifully compared to a full-bottomed wig, but truly representing the lion in its own family.

Several of the antelopes are very elegant. The *Bush Antelope (A. sylvicultrix)*, called by the colonists of Sierra Leone, the Bush Goat, is of considerable size, and measures five feet in length; the venison is excellent; it is not so fleet as other antelopes.

The *Ducker Antelope* (*A. mergens*) is remarkable for its great timidity, being alarmed at the least unusual noise, and concealing itself on hearing thunder. It lives solitary or in pairs; its peculiar name originates from its singular habit of rising upon the hind legs to look round, making a blowing noise with its nostrils, and then stooping and flying under cover of the vegetation, to stand and rise up again. Another species, the dodger antelope of Major Smith, also from Western Africa, appears to resemble this very much.

The *Lamantin, or Sea Cow (Manatus senegalensis)*, an amphibious quadruped of great dimensions; occasionally frequents the mouth of the Senegal. It is essentially herbivorous, and of a mild and inoffensive character. Adanson describes it as full eight feet long, having some resemblance to a seal: four nails are at the edge of the fins, and the tail is horizon-

tally flat; the eyes very small, and the ears not visible. The negroes call it *Cercou*.

Birds are in great variety, and of unsurpassed beauty; but we as yet know little of the ornithological treasures of the country. The rapacious birds are few: only one species of vulture is yet known to inhabit the Western Africa; this is the *Angola vulture of Latham,* which is probably the same with the *vultur percnopterus* of Egypt and Southern Europe; although Latham's name has recently been erroneously applied, in an English translation of *Cuvier's Animal Kingdom,* to a totally different bird.

The *Crowned Eagle of Guinea (F. coronatus),* is more than two feet in length, or one-third the size of the larger European eagles: it is only occasionally seen on the Gold Coast, and is remarkable for a crest over each eye, while the legs are clothed with feathers to the toes. The *Senegal Fishing Eagle* feeds almost entirely upon fish, in the manner of our osprey. Five other falcons, peculiar to this country, have recently been noticed. The grey-necked shrike *(Malaconotus olivaceus, Sw.)*; the Barbary shrike *(Malaconotus barbarus, Sw.),* and two or three other species of the same group, equally conspicuous for the richness of their plumage, occur in Senegal, and, probably, also in the neighbouring states. The beautifully coloured sun-birds *(Cinnyridæ, Sw.)* are met with in great numbers, sipping nectar from the numerous blossoms which a luxuriant vegetation yields. The Senegal, the long-tailed, and the chalybeate, are three species of exquisite beauty, and not larger in size than many of the American humming-

birds. There are numerous flocks of golden-coloured orioles of different species. Migratory Rollers, decked with the brightest tints of azure, purple, and green, occur in large flocks, with crested hoopoes, and beautiful bee-eaters. The water-birds, also, are but imperfectly known.

The *gallinaceous birds*, so numerous in India, and even in America, under the same parallels of latitude, are here thought to be very few. Some of the partridges, loosely mentioned by travellers, are probably of that particular race called sand grouse, found only in the hot latitudes of the Old World *(G. Pterocles, T.)*, while the rest cannot be referred to their true species. The only gallinaceous birds of any size, peculiar to tropical Africa, are the Guinea fowl. Of these, the most common species *(Numida meleagris)* has long been domesticated in Europe. In a wild state these birds associate in numerous flocks of 200 or 300 each : they chiefly frequent marshes and morasses, where they seek for worms, insects, and seeds. During the night they perch on high places, and are well known for their discordant noise.

Four of the most remarkable land birds are :—1st. The *Plantain-eater* (*Musophaga violacea*), as large as an ordinary sized pigeon, but with the tail much longer ; the whole plumage of a deep black, highly glossed with bluish purple ; but the quill feathers, when opened, are then seen to be of the deepest and richest lilac, reflecting violet ; the feathers of the head are of the same colour, and so short and soft as to resemble velvet ; the bill is orange, mixed with red, its substance very thick, and elevated in front

like a helmet. Another species, the variegated plantain-eater, is also found in Senegal, but its plumage is plain.

2nd. The *Touracco*, or *Web-crest of Senegal*, is of the same natural family; rather smaller in size, but living equally and exclusively upon fruits; the wings are also of a crimson lilac, but the rest of the body is green. On the head is a compressed and erect crest of thin and delicate feathers. It lives in the deepest forests, and perches only on the loftiest trees.

3rd. The *Beef-eater* (*Buphaga africana, L.*) receives its name from its habit of alighting on the backs of cattle, and picking from their hides the troublesome insects by which they are infested, climbing round their bodies, much in the same way as the creepers or woodpeckers do on trees; this is rendered apparent by the formation of their claws and tails, both of which are of the scansorial structure; the bill also is very thick. The bird is not so large as a thrush, and is plainly coloured. Another species is said to inhabit Abyssinia.

4th. The *Long-shafted Goat-sucker* (*C. macrodipterus*) peculiar to Sierra Leone, is varied with brown, yellowish, and black, much like the European species, yet it is smaller; its most remarkable character is a very long single feather, issuing from the wing covers, measuring near twenty inches, the shaft of which is only expanded into a broad web at the end. Nature has, no doubt, designed for this extraordinary appendage some peculiar use.

Icthyology.—The rivers and coasts abound with many fish, beautiful in their colours, or nutritious for

food; and there are swarms of alligators, serpents, and other reptiles.

The *Mollusca and Shell-fish* are abundant and curious. The *voluta cymbium* and *scæpha*, two large volute shells, the animals of which are carnivorous, appear to be in profusion in Senegal. Cones, olives, and various other predacious races, are no less common; the *Cypræa moneta*, or money cowry, passes current among the negro tribes as coin of a very low value.

Entomology offers an extensive field for the naturalist. The number of locusts and cicades is every where striking; but in the sandy plains thinly covered with grass their numbers are immense, and their chirping is intolerable; they are seen of various kinds, sizes, and colours, skipping or flitting about in all directions, at every step of the traveller.

The larvæ or caterpillars, of all the beetles that feed upon decayed wood, are rich and delicate eating, so that every forest affords the traveller plenty of nourishment did he know where to search for it. The children in Africa, at the proper season, are busily employed in digging out of the ground the females of a particular sort of cricket, which are then full of eggs, and so enclosed in a bag as to resemble part of the roe of a large fish: these, when roasted, are deemed very delicate.

The myriads of ants which swarm in tropical Africa can scarcely be conceived by those who have never visited hot climates. They are of numerous species, but all seem intent on removing from the face of the earth every animal or vegetable substance

no longer necessary or useful. Like the destroying angel they walk steadily forward in the line ordained them, and spare neither magnitude nor beauty, neither the living nor the dead. One species, which seems at times to have no fixed habitation, ranges about in vast armies; being armed with very strong jaws, they attack whatever animal impedes their progress, and there is no escape but by immediate flight, or instant retreat to the water. The inhabitants of the negro villages, has Mr. Smeathman has himself witnessed, are frequently obliged to abandon their dwellings, taking with them their children, &c. and wait until the ants have passed. So numerous are these hosts, that a deer, hog, &c. being killed, and left on the ground, in one night will have the flesh entirely cleaned from the bones, and made a complete skeleton. There are near twenty other species in Western Africa, of different sizes and colours, each possessing peculiar habits. Some attack the collections of the botanist, and in spite of weights laid upon his books of drying plants, get in, cut the leaves and flowers to pieces, and carry them away! Others attack all sorts of victuals. Mr. Smeathman has had four large sugar dishes emptied in one night, when the least opening was left; some assail the sideboard, and cover every glass that has had wine or punch left in it; nay, innumerable multitudes frequently even ascend the table, and drown themselves in the very bowls and vessels before you. (*Preface to Drury's Insects*, vol. iii.)—I tried in Africa to prevent the ants ascending my table by placing each of its legs in a large dish of water, but these astonishing

insects soon made a bridge of the dead bodies of their comrades; placing the feet of the table on globes of very smooth glass is a better expedient to ward off this plague.

The Termites, or white ants of Western Africa have had their wonderful economy attentively investigated by Mr. Smeathman. They build pyramidical or conical structures, divided into appropriate apartments, magazines for provisions, arched chambers, and galleries of communication. These are so firmly cemented that they easily bear the weight of three or four men; and on the plains of Senegal, appear like the villages of the natives. [I observed the same in Eastern Africa.] The destruction they effect is wonderfully rapid: they destroy food, furniture, books, clothes, and timber of whatever magnitude, leaving merely a thin surface; and in a few hours a large beam will be eaten to a mere shell not thicker than writing paper. On emerging from the egg, the insect is in its larva state, furnished with a great hard head and strong toothed jaws, but it is destitute of eyes. These are the labourers, who, although not more than a quarter of an inch long, build these edifices, procure provisions for the community, and take charge of the eggs. On changing to the pupa state, they become larger and more powerful: the head is nearly as big as the body, while the jaws project beyond the head, they are very sharp, but without teeth. They now become *soldiers*, and assume higher duties; never working themselves, but superintending the labourers; they act also as guards to defend the common habitations from intrusion or violence.

When a breach is made in the dwelling, they rush forward and defend the entrance with great ferocity; frequently beating their jaws against the walls as a signal to the other guards, or as encouragement to the labourers; they then retire, and are succeeded by the labourers, each with a burden of tempered mortar in his mouth, and who diligently set about and repair the injury. One soldier appears to attend every 600 or 800 labourers when building a wall; he takes no active part himself, but frequently makes the noise above mentioned, which is constantly answered by a loud hiss from all the attendants, who, at this signal, evidently redouble their diligence. The next change brings the pupæ, or soldiers to their perfect state as male and female winged insects. They then emerge into the air, either during the night, or on a damp and cloudy day: in a few hours, however, the solar heat causes the wings to wither and become dry; the insects then fall to the ground, and are eagerly sought after by hosts of birds, lizards, and even by the negroes themselves, who roast and eat them. The few which survive this general destruction are collected by the labourers and soldiers, who inclose them, by pairs, in apartments made of clay, the entrance to which is so narrow that they cannot migrate; but where they are diligently fed and attended by the labourers, whose bodies are small enough to admit an easy entrance. After impregnation, the abdomen of the female extends to an enormous size, exceeding the rest of her body nearly 2000 times; in which state it is filled with an immense number of eggs, protruded to the amount of about 8000 in

twenty-four hours. These are instantly taken away by the labourers, and conveyed to separate chambers, where, after they are hatched, the young are attended and provided for till they are able to shift for themselves, and take their share in the labours of the community. (*Smeathman, Phil. Trans.* vol. lxxi.)

Other species of termites build their nests on trees of an oval form, while that of another (*T. arda*) is cylindrical, two or three feet high, terminated by a round vaulted dome, and surrounded by a prominent terrace.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION OF SIERRA LEONE, GAMBIA, &c.—VARIETIES OF RACES, CHARACTER, &c.

POPULATION.—Of the numbers, characters, and almost of the names of the people of Western Africa (estimated at twenty-six to the square mile, 1,200,000 square miles, thus giving 31,000,000 mouths) we know very little.

The three great negro races inhabit the country:—

1st. The Foulahs, from Fooladoo on the Upper Senegal, or of the same race with the Fellatahs, in Central Africa, have now spread all over the banks of that river, besides the great kingdom of Foota Jallo to the south, and many districts on the banks of the Gambia. They have not the extreme negro characteristics; neither the deep jet hue, the flat nose, nor

the thick lips; on the contrary, their features are high, with an olive tint, and an agreeable expression. They have embraced the Mahometan faith, but without that bigotry which almost universally accompanies it. Their manners are peculiarly courteous and gentle: they practise the most liberal hospitality; and relieve the wants not only of their own aged and infirm, but even of those belonging to other tribes. Their employments are pastoral, and their habits, in some degree, nomadic. Occupying countries where there is no fixed property in land, they drive their flocks, according to the season, to the tops of the mountains, or the banks of the rivers. At night they collect their herds within the circle of the tents, and light large fires to deter the approach of wild beasts. Such is their good conduct and industry, that it is considered infamous to injure them, and a blessing is said to rest on any territory that contains one of their villages. Their internal government is republican, under chiefs of their own; and this form they insist upon retaining, even when they settle under a sovereign of another tribe.

2nd, The Mandingoes are a race more numerous and more decidedly negro both in form and disposition. Though capable of great occasional exertion, they have by no means the steady industry of the Foulahs. Their employments are chiefly a slight agriculture, fishing with nets and baskets, and, above all, traffic, in which their enterprise exceeds that of the other negro races. They conduct large kafilas to a considerable distance in the interior, and their language is well understood in all the commercial dis-

tricts. They are cheerful, inquisitive, credulous, and so gay, that they will dance for twenty-four hours without intermission to the sound of the drum or balafon. Polygamy is practised to a great extent, and the numerous households to which it gives rise live in tolerable outward harmony, which must not, however, be considered very secure, since it requires to be cemented by the extraordinary expedient of Mumbo Jumbo. This bugbear of the African ladies is called into service whenever the simpler expedients of scolding or beating fail to quell domestic dissension. Mumbo Jumbo, being then summoned, arrays himself in a fantastic coat hung for his use on a neighbouring tree, crowns his head with a tuft of straw, and soon after dusk marches into the market place. Thither the unhappy fair one being summoned dares not disobey, and the love of stir and mischief causes her to be soon followed by the majority of her fellow citizens. In their presence she is stripped naked, and undergoes a severe whipping, inflicted by the rod of Mumbo Jumbo, amid the applause of all the spectators.

The Mandingoes have some tastes more refined than are usual among Africans, particularly in poetry, the extemporary composition and recitation of which forms one of their favourite amusements. The original country of these people is the elevated territory of Manding; but they are now widely diffused over all this region, and particularly along the banks of the Gambia.

The third great race are the Jalofs, who occupy nearly the whole of that inland territory which inter-

venes between the Gambia and the Senegal, and the extent of which is estimated by Golberry at 4800 leagues. A number of them are subject to a powerful inland prince called Burb-y-Jalof, who boasts of himself as anciently the sole ruler in this part of Africa. The Jalofs, though of a deep black complexion, and with the decided negro features, are considered a handsome race. They boast of their antiquity, and in many respects excel their neighbours. Their language is softer and more agreeable; they manufacture finer cotton cloths, and give them a superior dye[1]; in horsemanship they are fearless and expert, and as hunters they rival the Moors. They possess not, however, the invention of writing, and reckon by fives instead of by tens.

The Feloops are a wild and rude race, inhabiting the shores to the south of the Gambia; their traffic with us is carried on through the Mandingo merchants, and we consequently know little of them.

The Timmanees border on our colony of Sierra Leone.

The Ashantees, amounting, it is thought, to 1,000,000 people, with 3,000,000 of dependants, belonging to other nations, inhabit Ashantee Proper, a region behind the Gold Coast, comprising about 14,000 square miles. They are a very superior class

[1] Mr. Forster has presented me with some specimens of the cotton cloths manufactured by the natives of Western Africa; these cloths have a softness, weight, and texture, which our manufacturers at Manchester cannot equal; the patterns before me are novel and tasteful, proving that the African is not the degraded being he has been so unjustly represented.

of natives to those on the coast, manufacture excellent cotton, smelt metals, and build large houses. The country is governed by a king, aided by four chiefs as counsellors. Notwithstanding that the manners of the Ashantees are more polished and dignified than their neighbours, annual hecatombs of unfortunate slaves and captives are offered to propitiate the manes of their ancestors, and on the death of any member of the royal family, thousands of human beings are slain as attendants for the next world. In no country, indeed, is life less valued than in Africa. The Landers were dreadfully tormented by the rude curiosity of the natives, who almost suffocated them by crowding to and about their tents. On complaining of this nuisance to the chief of one place, he said, 'Take your gun and kill a few; you have my full leave to slaughter as many as you please. After you have cut off the heads of some of them, the rest will not molest you.' Polygamy is carried to a dreadful extent; the legal allowance of wives for the Ashantee monarch is 3000!

The Dahomians (who have conquered the fearful and effeminate Wydans) predominate along what is termed the Slave Coast, and in the interior to the depth of about 200 miles; their rule is equal in barbarity to that of the Ashantees. The Fantees manufacture cottons interwoven with silk, earthenware, iron, soap, &c., and enjoy a republican form of government. Other tribes and nations exist, of whom we do not know even the names, but all, more or less, sunk in a state of savage barbarism. A few observations on the system that has been pursued in our

expeditions of discovery into the interior of Africa may not be here out of place. From the time of Park several expeditions have been fitted out by government, none of which have been attended with a success commensurate with the expectations of the country, and the money expended on them. If the subject were inquired into, it might not be difficult to trace the failure of these undertakings to the errors committed in planning and conducting them. The most considerable was that under Major Peddie, than whom a more estimable man, and a braver officer, never entered the field, but one more unfitted to lead an expedition of discovery into the interior of Africa could not well have been selected. Had his orders been to fight his way through the country no man would have done it better; but he was ill calculated to win his way through the unknown regions of Africa by patience, perseverance, and persuasion. There are persons now in this country who witnessed what took place after the expedition arrived on the coast (where it remained near twelve months, engaged in ill-judged preparations for the inland journey), and they declare that the attempt may be considered to have failed before the party left the shore. They started with a numerous train of camels, and other animals, laden with an immense quantity of valuable property, for use as presents to the kings or chiefs through whose territories they had to pass. The consequence was, what those acquainted with the natives and the country expected, they met with difficulties at every step. The cupidity of the natives was excited by the temptation of such a display of valuables; impedi-

ments were thrown in the way of the expedition, for the purpose of arresting the property; this created delay, with delay came sickness, despondency, and the total failure of the attempt, upon which an enormous sum of money was entirely thrown away. The next expedition was made under Major Gray, and was attended with the same errors and the same disastrous results. And now, after having expended uselessly tens of thousands on such ill-planned schemes, government has gone from one extreme to the other, and cannot spare even fifty pounds in aid of any undertaking for the like purpose. Park and Clapperton were both eminently qualified for the task they undertook; but it may be questioned, whether the right plan has yet been hit upon for ensuring success. It is the opinion of those who have resided long on the coast, that persons should be selected for the purpose who are seasoned to the climate by a residence in the country, and that they should set out attended by two or three natives belonging to the interior, moderately provided with the means of procuring subsistence on the journey, and to whom a handsome reward should be guaranteed, on condition of their bringing the traveller safe back; rewards might be promised to the chiefs in the interior on the same terms. It is thought that this plan affords the fairest prospect of success. A Marrabout (Moorish priest) offered to Major Gray, at Senegal, before he started, to conduct him to Timbuctoo, and from thence to the saltwater (sea) by the Niger, on condition of receiving 1000 pieces of bafts (about 800*l.*) on his safe return back

to Senegal. The offer was declined, as not being in accordance with his instructions.

It is difficult to obtain corrected statements of the population of our settlements on this coast. The most thickly inhabited by British subjects is Sierra Leone, the census of which, at two intervals, was as follows :—

Census of British Population at Sierra Leone.

Town.	Parish.	In 1820. Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	In 1833. Males.	Females.	Total.
Free Town and Suburbs	St. George	2128	1030	900	727	4785	Names of Division	now changed.	
Leopold	St. Peter	222	90	76	80	469			
Charlotte	St. John	124	65	48	31	268			
Bathurst	St. James	243	110	63	53	469			
Gloucester	St. Andrew	211	110	133	79	563			
Regent and Vicinity	St. Charles	583	349	156	130	1218			
Kissey and ditto	St. Patrick	399	246	231	157	1033			
Wilberforce	St. Paul	142	88	103	76	409			
Kent and Vicinity	St. Edward	162	85	28	20	296			
Waterloo	St. Michael	149	75	67	62	353			
Hastings	St. Thomas	119	24	24	28	195			
Wellington	Arthur	338	80	19	19	456			
York	St. Henry	260	18	11	8	297			
Leicester	St. Andrew	26	27	12	13	78			
Villages in Peninsula	....	535	622	131	192	1480			
Peninsula and Isles	....	92	...	23	...	115			
Gambia Island	St. Anne	32	1	2	2	37			
	Total......	5796	3020	2027	1678	12521	16785	12979	29764

Of the total population at Sierra Leone (35,000), about 200 are Europeans; the remainder are either captured and liberated slaves[1], or their descendants, together with some Kroomen, or native Africans, who ply for hire in the settlement. Many of the colonists possess wealth, some of the liberated slaves being now worth upwards of 1000*l.* sterling. There are, of course, some instances where indolence prevails, but on the whole the freed African shows that he prizes his liberty, and is grateful for the boon conferred on him by the humanity of Britain. There are public schools in each parish, and from 3000 to 4000 children daily attend them.

It is, however, much to be lamented, that the influence of certain individuals, by whom the affairs of the African Institution had been mainly directed, continued to sway for a considerable period, the policy of government, whereby the ample resources, provided

[1] Abstract of returns, shewing the number of slaves captured, emancipated, and registered in the mixed commission courts at Sierra Leone, since their establishment to the 6th day of Feb. 1826.

Captured in 1819	96	Died before Adjudication	1462
1820	455	Emancipated, but died before their descriptions could be taken to be registered	38
1821	1399	Delivered over to the Colonial Government, not emancipated or registered	626
1822	2753	Emancipated, but not registered	254
1823	670	Emancipated and registered	7122
1824	1331		
1825	1752		
To Feb. 6, 1826	1045		
	9502		9502

At Sierra Leone the total number of slaves emancipated between June, 1819, and January, 1833, was 27,697.

by parliament in furtherance of the philanthropic objects for which the colony was established, were applied to measures of a transitory nature, connected with the private pursuits in trade of those who recommended them, in place of being spent in founding a permanent system of moral and commercial improvement for the natives of the country. The money was frittered away in contracts and jobbing in the settlement, while the surrounding country, with its countless inhabitants, was left without an effort for its improvement, and to this day bears scarcely a trace of advantage arising from all the money that has been devoted to the colony. No encouragement has been offered to the native chiefs, in the way of premiums for the productions of the soil, nor has any regular system ever been adopted for supplying them with tools, seeds, or agricultural instruction. Had this been done, and persons been brought from the West Indies capable of instructing the natives in planting, England might, at this day, have had something to show and boast of for the money she has spent in Africa, in place of having to deplore the consequences of her ill-directed efforts, and ill-applied resources, which have so dispirited government and the country, that the smallest items are now grudgingly admitted in the estimates for the coast, in place of those reasonable resources which, if granted, and properly applied, might yet realize the fondest hopes of the friends of African improvement.

The Gambia.—The population of this settlement I can only show as regards the island of St. Mary, which was, in 1823, 1826, and 1833, thus :—

Population of St. Mary's Island, Gambia.

Class.	1823.			1826.			1833.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	37	8	45	28	2	30	31	5	36
Mulattoes	29	50	135	47	44	122	51	75	126
Ditto children .	20	36		17	14				
Blacks	428	467	1264	679	624	1577	1399	1179	2578
Ditto children .	140	169		112	162				
Sailors	152	...	152	131	...	131	...	...	...
Strangers........	293	10	309	7	...	7	...	...	...
Ditto children .	2	4							
Total......	1101	744	1845	1021	846	1867	1481	1259	2740

The foregoing does not include the garrison, which consists of about 150 of the Royal African corps.

The population of Cape Coast Castle is about 8000; of Accra about 5000; of Annamabou about 3000; of Dix Cove about 2000. In the aggregate we may estimate the number of British subjects on the western coast of Africa at about 50,000, of whom but 500 are Europeans.

CHAPTER IV.

GOVERNMENT AND FINANCES OF SIERRA LEONE, GAMBIA, &c. —COMMERCE, IMPORTS, AND EXPORTS, SHIPPING, &c.

Government and Finances.—Sierra Leone is governed by a civil lieutenant governor, assisted by a council. There is a chief justice, and a vice court of

admiralty. Here is also established the mixed commission for the adjudication of vessels taken in the slave trade. A detachment of the Royal African corps (blacks) is stationed in the settlement under a lieutenant-colonel.

The following is the succession of governors of Sierra Leone:—J. Clarkson, Esq. superintendent, 16th March, 1792; W. Dawes, Esq. 31st Dec. 1792; Z. Macauley, Esq. pro temp. 1st April, 1794; W. Dawes, Esq. returns 1795; Z. Macauley, Governor, 1796; T. Ludlam, Esq. pro temp. 1799; W. Dawes, 4th January, 1801; Captain W. Day, R.N. 15th February, 1803; J. Ludlam, Esq. 28th Aug. 1803; Ditto, pro temp. 1st Jan. 1808; T. Perrinet Thompson, Esq. 27th July, 1808; Captain Columbine, R.N. 12th Feb. 1810; Lieut. R. Bones, R.N. pro temp. 1st May, 1811; Lieut.-Col. Maxwell, Governor-in-Chief, 1st July, 1811; Lieut.-Col. M'Carthy, (Lieut. Gov.) 11th July, 1814; Lieut.-Col. M'Carthy, Governor-in-Chief, 29th Nov. 1815; Captain Grant, 2nd W. I. Reg. pro temp. 25th July, 1820; Brig.-Gen. M'Carthy, Gov.-in-Chief; from 20 N. to 20 S. lat. 28th Nov. 1824. Major-Gen. Turner; Major-Gen. Sir Niel Campbell; Col. Denham; Lieut.-Col. Lumley; Major Ricketts; Col. Findlay; Mr. Temple; Major Campbell.

The administration at the Gambia is under a civil lieutenant-governor; but no council has yet been established to assist him, and the want of one has been repeatedly complained of by the settlers.

Cape Coast Castle was replaced under the management of the merchants, in 1828. The forts are go-

verned by a president and council, according to certain rules and regulations agreed upon with government. The business in London is managed by a committee of three merchants, appointed by government, and accountable to the secretary of state for the due application of the funds allowed for the maintenance and defence of the settlements, which is 3500*l*. per annum. With this small sum eighty men are clothed, armed, and maintained for the defence of the castle, the forts kept in repair, the president's salary and all other expenses provided for.

The establishment for the support and maintenance of Cape Coast Castle and Accra is—

Cape Coast Castle.—President of the council, treasurer, warehouse keeper, and commander of the troops, per annum, 400*l*.; secretary, accountant, assistant warehouse keeper, and register, 200*l*.; captain of the guard, adjutant, chief engineer, and surveyor, 200*l*.; surgeon and superintendant of schools, 200*l*.; schools, 100*l*.; 80 men, at 12*l*. per man, 960*l*.; clothing for ditto, at 2*l*. 10*s*. per man, 200*l*.; labourers, male and female, 400*l*.; extraordinaries, including ammunition, presents, forts' repairs, stationery, medicines, canoe hire, funerals, non-commissioned officers, messengers, &c. 740*l*.

Accra.—Officer in charge of fort, per annum, 100*l*.; 12 men, at 12*l*. per man, 144*l*.; clothing, at 2*l*. 10*s*. per man, 30*l*.; labourers, 50*l*.; extraordinaries, including ammunition, presents, forts' repairs, &c. 176*l*.

Home Establishment.—Secretary, and office rent, 100*l*.; stationary, postages, &c. ——.; total, 4000*l*.

The preceding charges are now reduced to 3500*l*.,

and yet with this trifling amount the forts are kept in a better state than when ten times that sum was laid out on them by the colonial authorities; it is, in fact, a system of self government, which it would be very desirable to extend to the other settlements on this coast[1]. The local revenues are of course trifling; the forts are solely trading stations, and cannot be expected to yield a direct profit. The statements that have been put forth by its enemies, relative to the cost of Sierra Leone, have been much exaggerated; but it grieves me to admit that patriotism and philanthropy were, in this instance, a pecuniary speculation, yielding a temporary (and but a temporary) advantage to those who practised on the Christian principles of England; the time is now, I trust, gone past for allowing jobbing and peculation of the public money.

The expenditure on Sierra Leone was, for the five years ending 1824, 75,000*l.* per annum; for the succeeding five years it was diminished to nearly half that sum.

[1] I would strongly advise the formation of an association in London, similar to the East India Company, with delegated powers of sovereignty in Western Africa, viz. empowered to acquire and possess territory—to make war and peace—to form military establishments, and to possess trading privileges—such would be the most effectual mode of civilizing Africa, to whose present state Hindostan bore so strong a resemblance previous to the formation of our East India Company.—[See vol. vi. on Asia.]

Revenue and Expenditure of Sierra Leone by a Colonial Office Document.

Years.	REVENUE.			EXPENDITURE.		
	Colonial Duties.	Parliamentary Grant.	Total.	Civil.	Military.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1830			16751	13910	31761	45672
1831				14219	1286	15505
1832	9697	7050	16747	14144	1411	15555

The military charges for the latter years are, I suppose, solely for the militia at Sierra Leone and the Gambia. In aid of the parliamentary grant there are local duties collected upon imports; the progress of which for Sierra Leone is thus shown; the amount for the Gambia will be found under *Commerce*.

Amount of duties collected upon imports at Sierra Leone.

1812.... £1922	1818...... £5124	1830 £6839
1813......1528	1819........4656	1831 .. 7265
1814......1163	1820........6153	1832 .. 6457
1815......1816	1827........4846	1833 .. 6316
1816......2486	1828........4191	In all 1834 .. 7170
1817......3096		

The following is the estimate of the charges incurred for the civil establishment on the western coast of Africa, for the year ending 31st March, 1835, and voted by parliament:—*Sierra Leone*—Governor, 2000*l.*; chief judge, 1500*l.*; colonial secretary, 600*l.*; king's advocate, 500*l.*; first writer, 400*l.*; second ditto, 300*l.*; third ditto, 250*l.*; fourth ditto, 200*l.*;

colonial surgeon, 500*l.*; apothecary, 100*l.*; and chaplain, 500*l.*; total, 6800*l.*[1]—*The Gambia*—Lieutenant-governor, 1000*l.*; secretary, 450*l.*; commandant at M'Carthy's Island (7*s.* 2*d.* per day), 130*l.*; surgeon, 400*l.*; chaplain, 400*l.*; public buildings, 831*l.*; total, 3211*l.*—*Gold Coast*—viz. Cape Coast Castle and Accra, 3500*l.*; grand total, 13,561*l.* The payments out of the military chest at Sierra Leone and the Gambia, for the year ending 31st March, 1833, were, for *Sierra Leone*, pay, &c. of the Royal African corps, and West India regiments, 4508*l.*; of commissariat and ordnance offices, &c. 2968*l.*; army extraordinaries, including 7972*l.* as pensions to discharged negro soldiers from the West Indian and African regiments, 12,518*l.*; for the service of liberated Africans, 9325*l.*; sundries for ditto, 328*l.*; total for Sierra Leone, 29,657*l.*—For the *Gambia*—African corps, 3155*l.*, including 746*l.* which is paid out of the local revenue for militia and volunteers; commissariat officers, 497*l.*; naval disbursements, 517*l.*; army extraordinaries, 11,946*l.*; sundries, 3023*l.*; total Gambia, 19,138*l.*; grand total for Sierra Leone and the Gambia, 48,795*l.* The African corps consists of 20 officers and 511 non-commissioned officers, and rank and file; the charges for which in the army estimates are 14,205*l.* The ordnance at three of our forts in Western Africa was, in 1815, as follows :—At Cape Coast Castle, 6 42-pounders, 9 24-do., 2 18-do., 11 12-do., 18 9-do., 5 6-do., 26 3-do., 2

[1] The pay of the collector of the customs is 800*l.* per annum, which is defrayed out of the import duties.

3-inch mortars, 1 7-do.; at Accra, 7 18-pounders, 5 12-do., 4 24-do., 9 4-do.; at Annamaboe, 14 24-pounders, 8 18-do., 7 12-do., 12 6-do., 14 3-do. The main advantages arising from these forts is the power which they enable us to exercise for the suppression of the slave trade, and the security which they afford to our commerce, which increases in proportion to the total suppression of the traffic in human beings. Mr. James Swanzy, an officer in the service of the late African company of merchants, stated in his evidence before a committee of the house of commons, on the 16th June, 1816, that when he served on the coast, from the year 1789 to 1799, the proportion of the slave trade, to the other trade of the coast, was at that period nine-tenths of the whole trade.

In the same committee, Mr. Swanzy (who had resided ten years on the Gold Coast) was asked the following question: 'Of what nature is the accommodation which the forts afford to trade?' 'Very great; they open the communication with the interior; they are the depôts for goods; they protect the British subjects residing near them; by these means the trade is collected, day by day, and a collection of *three months* is shipped in *twenty-four hours*, without which no ship could profitably trade to the Gold Coast, as she would otherwise be obliged to stay three months at each point to collect the same quantity of goods. I would wish to add also that these forts give an exclusive trade to a considerable extent to the British subject.' Mr. Swanzy was asked whether the legitimate trade of the Gold

Coast had increased or diminished since the abolition of the slave trade (then only eight years ago); to which he answers, 'I should think the Gold Coast produces 100,000 ounces of gold per annum: during the slave trade not more was collected than was sufficient for the currency of the country, and I think it may still be increased; it requires only exertion to increase it.'

The late African committee, in a letter to the Lords of the Treasury, correctly remark that 'Settlements on the coast of Africa are valuable on two grounds, as conferring an exclusive right of trade upon the power possessing them; and second, as the only medium through which it can be safely and advantageously carried on. It is a lamentable but certain fact, that Africa has hitherto been sacrificed to our West India colonies; her commerce has been confined to a trade which seemed to preclude all advancement in civilization; her cultivators have been sold to labour on lands not their own, while all endeavours to promote cultivation and improvement in agriculture have been discouraged by the government of this country, lest her products should interfere with those of our more favoured colonies. With better views, and a more liberal policy, we are now returned to our original object: the country promises much; and it has long been a subject of regret, that her resources have never been called into action. The extent of territory is immeasurable, its fertility great, and its products (some of which are peculiar to Africa) are all valuable in the European market.'

COMMERCE.—The trade of the different settlements

it is difficult to give; I will endeavour however, to convey an idea of it, commencing with that of Sierra Leone.

Sierra Leone Shipping (Years ending in December.)

Years.	SHIPS INWARDS—FROM								SHIPS OUTWARDS—TO							
	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.		Total Inwards.		Great Britain.		British Colonies.		Foreign States.		Total Outwards.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1824	67	18846	15	621	11	905	93	20372	33	11154	27	2535	3	314	68	13993
1825	71	20469	28	2352	4	658	103	23479	78	23010	28	1890	3	368	99	25268
1826	68	21675	27	3001	8	6127	103	25803	68	21675	27	3001	8	1127	103	25803
1827	32	12818	11	996	13	2357	56	16171	38	10999	17	2183	12	1641	67	44828
1828	38	12774	18	2258	2	644	58	15676	41	13736	26	3111	6	1035	73	17882
1829	66	21792	20	2837	4	447	90	25076	47	14826	20	2807	8	358	75	18491
1830	64	22131	24	2373	7	784	95	26343	60	19369	18	1915	13	1590	91	22874
1831	59	20381	11	6252	7	837	77	22478	77	26445	26	2883	4	416	107	29744
1832	47	15114	16	2840	2	548	65	18502	57	17307	9	1079	4	356	70	19946
1833	50	15536	11	1554	2	485	63	17575	51	15616	8	980	...	...	59	16596
1834	54	12838	18	431	1	138	73	17307	44	14887	33	3188	7	993	84	19068

Vessels entered Inwards, and cleared Outwards, in the Year ending 5th of January, 1835, as compared with the Year ending 5th January, 1834.

Countries.	Inwards, 1835.			Outwards, 1835.			Inwards, 1834.			Outwards, 1834.		
	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.
United Kingdom ..	54	12838	710	44	14887	688	50	15536	722	51	15616	677
British West Indies	1	125	10	6	954	48	nil.	nil.	nil.	3	299	22
British North America	4	598	31	2	390	22	4	638	34	nil.	nil.	nil.
Foreign Europe, B. V...........	1	138	10	7	993	127	nil.	2	26	nil.	nil.	nil.
British Pos. Africa, B. V...........	10	3064	89	23	1669	127	5	578	44	4	532	35
Foreign Vessels ..	3	544	34	2	175	15	2	338	22	1	149	9
Total	73	17307	884	84	19068	800	63	17575	878	65	17515	799

Value of the trade of Sierra Leone, from 1824 to 1834 [1].

Years.	IMPORTS—FROM				EXPORTS—TO			
	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total value.	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total value.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1824	38596	22714	16528	77838	62650	2611		65261
1825	44079	21958	11937	77974	54624	4341		58965
1826	53284	1804	1102	56190	38950	4569	994	44513
1828	74900	4275	465	79648	39170	2080	192	41442
1829	106642	2736	308	109686	51379	6475		57854
1830	81703	2943	1605	87251	63482	7382	212	71076
1831	100828	2270	1541	104639	78194	2236	840	81280
1832								
1833					52900	2588	1676	57164
1834					51805	6023	346	58174

[1] The first eight years are from a manuscript Colonial Office document; the latter two years are from the London Custom House returns.

Principal Articles of Export from Sierra Leone—years ending 5th of Jan.

Articles.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Timber, loads	10742	11114	No returns.		18983	24048	17761	16951	9223
Cam Wood, tons	550	363			592	644	975	911	800
Palm Oil, gallons	27011	75676			t. 364	c. 397	c. 480	c. 542	928
Ivory, pieces	2958	2744			3398	1095	5999	761	858
Rice, tons	392	107			200	78½	875	785	558
Bees' Wax, tons	14	6			c. 135	c. 152	c. 396	c. 87	289
Gold, oz.	150	£10000			...	...	oz. 204	oz. 50	boxes, 2
Ox Hides, No.	5670	4241			15885	6311	28997	6831	18866
Horns	...	...			2300	3160	5810	1580	16170
Copal Gum, casks	81	...			18	96	133	87	197
Ginger and Arrowroot	...	...			...	60	290	139	447
Coffee, hds.	...	3			5	...	...	...	6
Pepper, pipes	...	3			10	c. 469	230	327	200
Indigo, Tortoise-shell, Planks, India Rubber, Hemp, &c.	Various quantities.*								
	Total value of Exports, £				81076	81280	58920	57164	58174

* It is difficult to state the trade accurately, because the denomination of the Exports varies to different countries.
t. stands for *tons*, *c.* for *casks*.

Exports from the River Gambia, in 1825, 1830, and in 1833.

Articles Exported.	1825.	1830.	1833.	Estimated value in England of the several articles 1833.	Amount of Duty payable in England on each article.
				£	£.
Pure wax, tons......	181	244½	175½	22815	1755
Ivory, lbs.	696 teeth	14625	·29240	5117	260
Gold, oz. †	922	500	1139	4556	
Tortoiseshell.........	1 shell	2 boxes	254 lbs.	318	12
Gum, Senegal.......	30 bags	52 cwt.	275 tons	13750	3300
Hides, no.	58125	76471	76900	15380	961
White rice, tons	6	82	272¾	3545	4091
Rough rice, tons ...		82	15½	67	39
Corn. Bordeaux ‡...	266	1711	3636	3151	
Cotton, lbs...........	...	...	14900	124	
African teak	1801 logs §	502 loads	660	2288	330
Hardwood	...	...	48 loads	166	24
Camwood, tons......	40	54	74½	1043	56
Palm oil, gallons ...	...	3443	1819	272	16
Ox horns, no.	292	225	6780	54	14
Lime, Bordeaux ...	1500	3714	1225	135	
Ginger, lbs.	...	196	680	25	3
Horses, no. †	...	9	15	130	
Bullocks, no. †	...	207	13	28	
Pagnes or country cloths, no.	...	1140	1264	547	55
Country baskets, no.	...	700	220	23	5
Arrowroot, lbs	...	...	4200	105	17
Hemp, tons.	...	...	4	86	
Orchilla, lbs..........	...	1476			
				£66127	£17348

† Large quantities shipped and not invoiced.
‡ The Bordeaux is 60 gallons. § The logs average 50 feet.

The following shows the nature and quality of produce at Sierra Leone.

	Sugar Cane Stalks.	Rice.	Cassado and Cocoa.	Yams.	Indian Corn.	Potatoes.	Arrowroot.	Ginger.	Nuts.	Plantains.
1831.	12000	bush. 3069	bush. 53210	cwt. 2643	bush. 7645	bush. 601	cwt. 10	cwt. 20	bush. 2642	bush. 7238
Average prices the same year	1*s.*	5*s.* 6*d.*	6*d.*	5*s.* 6*d.*	2*s.* 6*d.*	6*s.*	37*s.* 4*d.*	37*s.* 4*d.*	1*s.* 3*d.*	10*d.*

The following shows the prices of different articles in the markets at the Gambia :—

Yellow bees'-wax, 130*l.* per ton; African teak, 3*l.* 10*s.* per load; camwood, 12*l.* per ton; ivory, 3*s.* 6*d.* per lb.

Mahogany of various kinds at 4*l.* currency, or 3*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.* sterling, (Exchange dollar at 4*s.* 4*d.*)

Ebony of very good quality grows abundantly in Salum River, and partially in Gambia. Dittach, a very hard and durable wood, stands well under water, and is used in the construction of vessels, wharfs, &c.

Toulacouna, or bitter oil, 3*s.* 6*d.* (currency) per gallon.

Cotton, Nominal or barter price, in the rough, 2*d.* per lb.

Indigo, in the rough cake, 2*s.* 6*d.* each.

Hemp, made into ropes or cords, and sold at about 6*d.* each.

Potash, about 5*d.* per lb.

Honey, retailed in Mandingo country at 2*s.* 6*d.* per gallon.

Butter same price as honey. (N.B. The natives preserve the butter by a process of melting, and retail it in the liquid state at 2*s.* 6*d.* per gallon.)

Cola nut, 3*s.* 9*d.* per 100.

Cardamums, sold in barter among the natives, at about 10*s.* the lb., and brought from a distance in the interior by the gold merchants.

Goat, calf, and bullocks' skins, dressed by the natives, but usually made into articles of use. (The natives dress these skins well by means of potash and banna seeds.)

Cayenne pepper of all kinds, in plenty.

Beef, good, at 3*d.* (sterling) per lb. Fowl, 1 to 1½ dollar per dozen. Mutton, generally private property, seldom in market. Goats 1 dollar 1½ (with one or more kids.)

Wines, Claret, 5 dollars the case. Tea, 2 dollars the lb. Dried oysters (good.) Eggs, 14 to 16 for quarter dollar.

Returns of Imports into the Port of Bathurst, Island of St. Mary's, and River Gambia, in the year ending 31st December, 1834, showing also the Amount of Duties collected thereon (shillings and pence excluded.)

Quarter ending.	Invoice Amount of British Goods which pay 2 per cent.	Invoice Amount of Foreign Goods which pay 6 per cent.	Duties.	Goods landed from Foreign Vessels, which pay 6*s.* per ton.	Anchorage, 4*l.* st. on each vessel.	Quarantine Dues, 1*l.* on each vessel.	Extra Duty on Spirits, 1*s.* per gallon on Brandy and Gin, and 6*d.* per gallon on Rum.	Total Amount of Duties.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	No.	Tons.
31st March	9152	5653	522	79	32	12	155	802	31	2787
30th June	11740	5974	593	58	72	23	280	1025	37	3941
30th Sept.....................	5526	4424	376	26	36	13	23	472	28	2793
31st Dec.	16063	4953	618	52	16	10	19	717	31	2237
Total for 1834...	42481	21004	2109	214	156	58	477	3016	127	11758
Do. for 1833...	23138	15022	1367	153	120	46	333	2020	104	9260

The Exports for 1834 I do not find at the Custom House.

The trade returns of Cape Coast Castle are less perfect; I am enabled, however, through the kindness of Mr. Nicholls, to shew the

Exports from Cape Coast Castle, between the 1st of August, 1829, and 30th of June, 1834.

		Oz.	Value.
1st Aug. 1829, to 30th May, 1830,	Palm Oil, Ivory, &c.	(11958 Gold included),	£79718
1st June, 1830, to 31st Dec. 1830,	Do.	5510 Do.	36377
1st Jan. 1831, to 30th Sept. 1831,	Do.	10888 Do.	78818
1st Oct. 1831, to 31st Dec. 1831,	Do.	1255 Do.	11464
1st Jan. 1832, to 30th June, 1832,	Do.	12580 Do.	87654
1st July, 1832, to 31st Dec. 1832,	Do.	12117 Do.	93450
1st Jan. 1833, to 31st Dec. 1833,	Do.	21475 Do.	140344
1st Jan. 1834, to 30th June, 1834,	Do.	15351 Do.	106156
		Oz. of Gold, 91134	Total, £633981

The trade of Western Africa is of considerable importance to this country, and yearly increasing;—it has been stated by Mr. M'Culloch, in his Commercial Dictionary at only from 40,000*l*. to 60,000*l*. per annum. Let the following return demonstrate the truth of this assertion.

Imports from the Gambia, Sierra Leone, and Cape Coast, by *one* mercantile house, for the years 1832-33 and 1834, will indicate the importance of this trade, which has so often been denied.

	Gold.	Gum Senegal.	Hides.	Wax.	Gambia Wood.	Palm Oil.	Rice.	Elephants' Teeth.	Dollars.	Doubloons.	Guinea Grains.	Camwood.	Teak Timber.
	oz.	tons.	No.	cwt.	lds.	tons.	cwt.	lbs.	No.	No.	lbs.	tons.	lds.
From River Gambia............	2938	679	65353	3605	892	2	1818	12179	...	...	...	...	...
Gold Coast	23597	...	...	17	...	848	...	54435	10578	998	1638	...	...
Sierra Leone	829	...	4400	54	...	26	680	3025	...	...	...	300	85
Total......	27364	679	69753	3676	892	876	2498	69639	10578	998	1638	300	85

SUMMARY.—Gold, 27,364 oz., at 4*l*. per oz., 109,456*l*.; Gum, Senegal, 679 tons, at 85*l*. per ton, 57,715*l*.; Hides, 69,753, at 5*s*. each, 17,438*l*.; Bees' Wax, 3,676 cwts., at 7*l*. 10*s*. per cwt., 27,570*l*.; Gambia Wood, 892 loads, at 10*l*. per load, 8,920*l*.; Palm Oil, 876 tons, at 30*l*. per ton, 26,280*l*.; Rice, 125 tons, at 20*l*. per ton, 2,500*l*.; Elephants' Teeth, 69,639 lbs., at 4*s*. per lb., 13,928*l*.; Dollars, 10,578, at 4*s*. 4*d*. per dollar, 2,292*l*.; Doubloons, 998, at 75*s*. per doubloon, 3,742*l*.; Guinea Grains, 1,638 lbs., at 1*s*. per lb., 82*l*.; Camwood, 300 tons, at 20*l*. per ton, 6,000*l*.; Teak Timber, 85 loads, at 10*l*. per load, 850*l*. Total, 276,773*l*.

The annual importations of palm oil are now upwards of 12,000 tons, which, at the market price of 28*l.* per ton, amounts to 336,000*l.* per annum! giving constant employment to 15,000 tons of shipping! Here then in one article we have a value nearly seven times greater than Mr. M'Culloch's estimate of the whole trade,—a striking proof both of the author's inaccuracy, and how little is generally known upon the subject. But it is on such statements, and on such want of information that government, and the public, have been led to undervalue the importance of the trade of the west coast of Africa: and to such a length has this been carried, that both in parliament and out of doors it has been more than once suggested to abandon our settlements there as valueless, or at all events unworthy the trifling expenditure now awarded for their support. Such settlements may truly be regarded as foreign shops for the sale of our goods abroad, and those who sell in them the manufactures of Manchester and Birmingham to the natives of Africa, are as much entitled to protection from the mother country, as the shopkeeper who sells the same articles in Cheapside or Dover.

Importations of Palm Oil since 1828.—(Brokers' Circular, Jackson.)

	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.
Liverpool, tons........	5656	8290	9930	7100	10401	10800	11400
London, Bristol, &c.	570	600	1070	950	1250	2100	1250
Total......	6220	8890	11000	8050	11650	12900	12650

Duty reduced in July 1834 from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.

The total of our commerce with Western Africa for 1829, (the latest return in a complete view before me) was—

I. Imports into the United Kingdom, in 1829, from the Western Coast of Africa, distinguishing their Quantities and Values.

Articles imported.	Quantities imported.				Official Value of Imports.				
	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the coast between the Gambia and the Mesurada.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurada to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from Cape Apollonia to the Rio Volta.	Coast southward of the Rio Volta, with the Island of Fernando Po.	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the coast between the Gambia and the Mesurada.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurada to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from Cape Apollonia to the Rio Volta.	Coast southward of the Rio Volta, with the Island of Fernando Po.	Total.
					£	£	£	£	£
Coffee ....lbs.	1327	...	...	6766	82	...	...	422	505
Dye and hard woods, viz.									
Barwood ....tons	...	...	...	246	...	...	...	9871	9871
Camwood ....tons	103	...	...	15	825	...	...	127	952
Ebony ....tons	...	...	...	12	...	...	...	201	201
Red or Guinea wood, tons	...	...	...	3	...	...	...	123	123
Elephants' teeth ....cwt.	318	...	636	1238	1912	...	3820	7432	13165
Grains, Guinea ....lbs.	9007	...	5302	...	131	...	77	...	208
Gum, copal ....lbs.	12576	...	566	423	524	...	23	17	565
Senegal..........cwt.	2587	...	...	...	5498	...	...	...	5498
Hides, untanned ....cwt.	3696	...	...	...	11101	...	...	...	11101
Oil, palm ....cwt.	2963	400	7001	169556	2963	400	7001	169556	179921
Skins, calf and kip..........cwt.	827	...	...	...	2606	2	...	...	2608
Timber, viz.									
Teak wood ....loads	16015	...	...	...	10207	...	...	...	10207
Wax, bees' ....cwt.	4510	...	...	64	21486	...	...	306	21792
Other articles, official value	...	...	...	...	767	1	464	614	1847
					58107	403	11387	188674	258573

This table does not include gold dust. In fact, it is very difficult to give correct tables, or returns of the trade of the western coast of Africa. A considerable portion of the trade is conducted on the ancient system of "adventures" afloat, or, what is called, the "floating trade." A ship is fitted out, and committed, with her cargo, to the direction of the

captain, who acts as supercargo, and who trades along the coast, backwards and forwards, till he has disposed of his cargo, in barter with the natives, when he returns home. On the abolition of the slave trade this old-fashioned system of adventure was resumed by many of the captains who had been engaged in that traffic (in which some of them had made considerable sums of money), and who, finding their former occupation gone, turned their attention in this way by the lawful pursuits of trade. It is a system of traffic, however, attended with great risk, and wholly dependent for success on the honesty, sobriety, and good conduct of the captain, and one which the increasing security, afforded by our settlements on shore, has already greatly limited, and will ultimately supersede. It has often been remarked, by persons conversant with the history of slave merchants, as a curious fact, that there is scarcely an instance on record of money acquired by the sale of our fellow-creatures remaining with the parties, or of its having laid the foundation of lasting eminence or prosperity for any family, notwithstanding the immense sums that must have been amassed in the pursuit of so diabolical a traffic. May we not trace in this a proof of the retributive justice of an offended Deity? At all events, it is consolatory to think that few of our posterity will have occasion to look back and blush individually for ancestral shame on this account, although the slave trade must ever remain the worst blot in the page of our national history.

When the former edition of this work was in the press, I received a letter with some excellent speci-

mens of the products of Western Africa, from a London merchant, Mr. Matthew Forster, who has zealously and patriotically exerted himself for the welfare of that unfortunate but valuable country. He observes—

'It may add some interest to your chapter on our African settlements if you notice the probable discoveries that may yet be made in the products of that quarter of the world, which till very lately, was seldom visited for any more legitimate article of produce than human flesh. I have already mentioned to you that teak timber for the purpose of ship-building, and mahogany are discoveries within the last twenty years. The first importation of palm oil is within the recollection of persons now alive, and when the slave trade was abolished in 1808, the quantity imported annually did not exceed one or two hundred tons. The annual importations now exceed twelve thousand tons!

'I have lately been attempting to obtain other oils from the coast, and it was only yesterday I received from the hands of the oil presser the result of my most recent experiment on the ground nut, which I am happy to say is encouraging. I send you a sample of the oil extracted from them. They are from the Gambia. [It is a pure golden coloured oil, with a pleasant flavour, free from the frequent rancidity of olive oil.] I lately received from Cape Coast a quantity of the palm nut from which the palm oil is previously obtained, for the purpose of examining the kernels to see whether they would not yield an oil worth extracting; I send you a sample of the

nuts, and one of the candles made from the styrine obtained from them, but I do not think they have had fair play in the management.

'I also send you a sample of a physic-nut sent home by Mr. President Maclean the other day from Cape Coast, upon which Mr. Battley, the pharmaceutical chemist has made some experiments, and of which he reports most favourably. He states that the oil obtained from them has all the valuable qualities of castor oil in a stronger degree—a few drops being sufficient, while it is free from the loathsome taste so objectionable in castor oil. He has had it tried in the hospitals, where it has been reported favourably of. I will obtain from him a specimen of the oil for you. It is used as physic by the natives [1].

'If I am blessed with health and life for a few years longer, I do not despair of increasing the number and value of our African imports. It is the surest method of improving Africa and benefitting the mother country, and it becomes a British merchant to carry his views sometimes beyond the boundary of sordid gain.' [I trust these sentiments may be widely diffused among our colonial merchants.]

[1] I gave these specimens to my noble and amiable friend Lord Stanhope, for the Medico Botanical Society, of which his lordship is the esteemed President.—R. M. M.

II. Exports of British produce and manufactures from the United Kingdom, in 1829, to the Western Coast of Africa, distinguishing their quantities and values.

Articles Exported.	Quantities Exported.				Official Value of Exports.				
	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the coast between the Gambia and the Mesurada.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurada to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from Cape Apollonia to the Rio Volta.	Coast southward of the Rio Volta, with the Island of Fernando Po.	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the coast between the Gambia and the Mesurada.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurada to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from Cape Apollonia to the Rio Volta.	Coast southward of the Rio Volta, with the Island of Fernando Po.	Total.
					£	£	£	£	£
Apparel and Slops	...	...	...	...	7172	10	670	1333	9186
Brass and Copper ......cwt.	328	10	77	242	1637	45	360	1162	3205
Cottons, entered by the yard ......yds.	558187	119484	551908	681361	41501	8961	40049	51068	141581
Hosiery, Lace, and small wares	...	...	...	...	218	...	...	...	218
Glass and Earthenware	...	...	...	...	878	13	139	931	1962
Guns and Pistols ......No.	21151	2960	14585	37955	15783	2220	10938	28466	57408
Gunpowder ......lbs.	357604	25000	230400	1549350	10802	755	6960	46803	65321
Hardwares and Cutlery, cwt.	420	2	43	1194	1157	5	119	3285	4567
Iron, wrought, & unwrought ......tons	527	20	151	1157	8647	210	2220	11684	22762
Lead and Shot ......tons	8	4	35	4	85	47	369	45	548
Leather, wrought and unwrought	...	...	...	...	772	...	174	...	947
Linens ......yards	36502	...	3818	1853	1736	...	178	79	1994
Salt ......bushels	38440	...	...	141700	1279	...	...	4723	6003
Soap and Candles ......cwt.	500	...	20	270	1795	...	69	810	2675
Stationary of all sorts	...	...	...	...	958	...	44	...	1002
Sugar, refined ......cwt.	199	...	14	261	590	...	41	478	1110
Swords and Cutlasses ... No.	16193	...	400	12162	4048	...	100	3040	7188
Wood, viz.									
Staves and Casks......packs	170	200	1285	10747	113	50	756	7164	8084
Woollens, entered by the piece ......pieces	196	3	228	40	934	13	435	180	1552
by the yard......yards	800	...	80	650	53	...	5	48	107
Hosiery and small wares	...	...	...	...	161	3	66	1323	1554
All other articles	...	...	...	...	7560	133	2095	1588	11377
					107882	12468	65791	164218	350361

Exclusive of the above, we exported in 1829 to Western Africa 161,431*l.* worth of British, Colonial, and foreign merchandize, making a total of 511,792*l.*, which is now considerably increased.

As near as I can ascertain, (gold not being entered

at the Custom-house) the following are the importations of African gold for three years; weight after melting, taken from the refiner's books.

	lbs.	oz.	dwt.		£	s.	d.
For 1832	1866	4	12	at 77s. 9d.[1]	87066	15	7½
1833	1712	8	12	at do.	79898	4	7½
1834	1691	4	14	at do.	78902	8	4¾
	5270	5	18		245868	8	7¾

The commerce in gold dust from West Africa, presents to us a prospect of increasing our circulating medium, if our paper currency be not relaxed, and notwithstanding the difficulty of arriving at an estimate of the value of some of the returns (for the reasons already stated) I trust I have adduced facts sufficient to demonstrate the little reliance to be placed on Mr. M'Culloch's assertion respecting the value of the trade of Western Africa.

I cannot indeed better illustrate the mere commercial importance of the British settlements in West Africa than by placing before the reader the following luminous and truly patriotic statement draw up by M. Forster, Esq., (of the mercantile firm of 'Forster and Smith[2],' New City Chambers) in a letter ad-

[1] The quality is generally above standard, making the actual value about 4*l.* per ounce.

[2] These gentlemen, with a view of opening to the natives of Africa a market for their rice (an article the culture of which the natives so well understand), have erected, near London, at a very considerable expense, a mill worked by steam, for cleaning it from the husk in this country; and have made arrangements for largely importing the paddy: some of this

dressed to the Secretary of State for the Colonies; the officers of the Colonial Office are qualified to judge whether the assertions herein made are in the slightest degree exaggerated. The letter is dated the 9th January, 1832.

'Attempts have frequently been made to depreciate the commercial importance of our settlements on the west coast of Africa, compared with the cost of maintaining them: and conceiving that parliament and the public are not fully aware of the nature and extent of the trade dependent on those settlements, I have taken the liberty of drawing up a statement shewing the benefit arising from them to the revenue

grain already received is equal to the best Carolina, and superior in my mind to Bengal rice. To parts of the coast where the quality is inferior, they propose sending Carolina seed to improve the crops; indeed they have already sent out seed to the Gambia. They are thus doing, as private individuals, what government should have done long ago, in this as well as in other articles of produce. In these humane and patriotic efforts, it is grievous to learn that Messrs Forster and Smith have had to contend against the vexatious and strenuous opposition of interested parties, who are desirous of preserving to the United States a monopoly of the rice market of England, and to themselves a monopoly of cleaning it. American rice, be it observed, *is produced entirely by* SLAVE LABOUR *in Carolina!* It is, however, but justice to add, that the Board of Trade have stood firm in defence of our colonial interests, and in philanthropically promoting the efforts of Messrs. Forster and Smith to encourage free labour in Western Africa. I have examined specimens of Messrs. Forster & Co.'s African rice—I had it cooked in a variety of modes, and I found it infinitely superior to the insipid rice of America: it was quite equal to the delicious reddish grain of Ceylon and Western India.—R. M. M.

and national industry of this country, which I have the honour herewith to annex for your Lordship's inspection.

'The annual direct and indirect advantages to the national industry from the trade, I estimate as per statement No 1, at 463,234*l.* 19*s.* and the annual benefit to the revenue, as per statement No. 2, at 207,873*l.* 13*s.* exclusive of ship-building materials and labour, as also of some other minor sources of national benefit not enumerated. The total gain to the industry and revenue of the mother country cannot be less than 600,000*l.* per annum.

'Within the last twenty years the increase in the trade in palm oil, timber, and bees' wax, has been very great. Attempts are making in the Gambia and elsewhere on the coast to introduce the cultivation of some articles of produce new to the trade of Africa; but these endeavours require time on account of the unenlightened state of the natives, the very recent abolition of the slave trade, and its partial continuance by other nations. In several cases, however, the natives have proved themselves capable of entertaining new ideas of trade and cultivation more readily than might have been expected. The trade in teak timber for ship-building was unknown in Africa twenty years ago; the annual importation of that article from Sierra Leone at present is from fifteen to twenty thousand loads, giving employment to nearly twenty thousand tons of British shipping annually.

'Fifteen years ago it was not known that mahogany grew in the Gambia; since that period several

thousand loads of mahogany have been imported into England from our settlement on that river; and although the natives would not at first cut and prepare it for shipping, they are now willing to supply any quantity of it which this market may require. The low price of Honduras mahogany, however, renders it impossible to afford any encouragement to their industry in this article at present, but these instances afford pleasing and conclusive proofs that the natives will turn their attention to trade whenever the opportunity is afforded them.

'The annual cost of our settlements on the Western Coast of Africa, as respects the protection of our commerce, exclusive of those expenses incidental to the suppression of the slave trade, which ought not to be charged to the account of those possessions, is better known to his Majesty's Government than to me, but I may venture to assume that it bears but a trifling, indeed insignificant, proportion to the advantages derived from the trade: and those settlements are to be considered not with reference to their present value alone, but to their future importance as outlets to British manufactures, when time shall have removed some of those difficulties which at present obstruct the trade. The policy of most foreign governments is directed against our commerce, the acknowledged source of our national power. The territorial extent of the British islands is too limited ever to have raised this empire to its present proud pre-eminence in the scale of nations, without the aid of manufactures and foreign trade; consequently I humbly submit, that every

foreign settlement, which gives facility to the sale of British goods, is to be estimated not only with reference to the direct amount of revenue received or the produce imported from it, but still more by the employment it affords to our manufacturers, artizans, and shipping. Without a large manufacturing population, the revenue necessary to pay the interest of the national debt and the annual cost of the civil and military establishments of the country cannot be raised; hence the vast importance of our foreign possessions, which a too limited view of colonial policy leads some persons to undervalue.

'Striking out of the public estimates every charge belonging to the account of the slave trade, I do not think the annual cost of maintaining our settlements on the western coast of Africa exceeds from twenty-five to thirty thousand pounds per annum, probably not so much, while the national gain is considerably above half a million per annum. It is a common error to regard those settlements in the light of colonies having a taxable population, from which they may be expected to raise a revenue sufficient to maintain themselves; but the fact is, that nothing can yet be raised from the natives for their support, while the protection they afford is indispensable to the protection of our trade; a trade even now important, and which time may render of incalculable value, when the effect of the slave trade shall have ceased to exercise its baneful influence over the native population.

'Neither is it reasonable or politic to require individuals trading on the coast to contribute towards their maintenance beyond the duties they at present

pay to the colonial funds on the goods they import from England, and the personal services they are called upon to render as militiamen in defence of the forts. I humbly submit, that British subjects are as much entitled to protection in carrying on a trade, by which the national industry is benefited, in Africa as at home. In applying their industry, and risking their capital and health in a trade giving employment and profit to their countrymen at home, and by which the national revenue gains so largely, they may surely not only claim the protection but the gratitude of their country. Besides which, you cannot invest individuals with a property in public works necessary for the defence of our trading establishments in Africa. Individuals change, but the advantage is national and permanent, and so should be the protection.

'By upholding these forts on a footing to command the respect of the natives, our Governors in charge of them may render the most important services in carrying into effect the convention recently concluded with France, for the suppression of the trade in slaves, the due execution of which treaty cannot fail to produce effects as favourable to the trade and civilization of Africa, as to the cause of humanity, now hourly violated by the continuance of the traffic. France, America, Holland, and Denmark, have each their settlements on the coast, which they evince the utmost anxiety to retain and encourage. Our settlements on the Gold Coast cost lately only 4000*l.* and are now to be reduced, I understand, to 3500*l.* per annum; and this is the sole expense of protecting a valuable trade. The Dutch

settlement of Elmina, which is only seven miles from our settlement at Cape Coast Castle, costs the Dutch an equal sum to ours, while Holland has not one-twentieth part of the trade on the Gold Coast that we have.

'It should be borne in mind that every article imported from Africa is in exchange for goods, and that consequently it is one of the very few legitimate trades remaining to this country. The article of palm oil, which has increased so much of late years, can be obtained only in Africa, and is already extensively used as a substitute for Russian tallow in the manufacture of soap, &c. The recent additional duties imposed on British goods imported into the Russian market may suggest to us the policy of cherishing a trade which consumes the products of our national industry without limitation or restraint by hostile tariffs.

'The abolition of the slave trade took effect on the 1st of March, 1808. Twenty-three years is too short a period to effect a change in the character and pursuits of a people corrupted by three centuries of war and cruelty consequent on that traffic, and whose kings and chiefs have been taught by the sordid slave dealers of enlightened Europe to despise and neglect the pursuits of legitimate commerce, in favour of a trade in the persons of their people. Let, however, those chiefs be convinced by experience that they will gain more by the labour of their people at home, than by the sale of their persons for exportation, and you lay at once the foundation of a new system, under which war and treachery shall give

place to the regenerating influence of peaceful industry. Europe owes to Africa a heavy debt for the crimes that have been committed under the slave trade. England has been the first to offer payment of her portion of that debt, and she will not only have the high consolations of humanity for her reward, but probably, at no very distant period, the advantages of a trade with Africa, of which it is difficult at present to foresee the extent.'

No. I.

Annual value of Exports from London, Liverpool, and Bristol, to the West Coast of Africa, between the Gambia and Angola, calculated from the amount of Shipments by the several Merchants trading to the Coast from those places.

A few introductory remarks may be necessary to render these tables more clearly understood by those who have not been accustomed to estimate the importance of our foreign and colonial trade on the principles on which they are drawn up. Perhaps I cannot more clearly illustrate those principles than by the following examples:—Let us suppose two cargoes of British manufactured goods to be sent to Canada, one consisting of cotton fabrics, and the other of hardware articles. In the case of the former we may assume that the average cost of the cotton wool of which the goods are made is about 25 per cent. of the export value, the remaining 75 per cent. having been added to the value of the raw material by the application of British capital and labour, and

is therefore so much value gained to the national wealth and industry. In the case of the hardware cargo, the iron of which the articles are made being a native production, we may assume that the total value is an actual creation of national capital and labour. Many persons limit their notions of the importance of our colonial and foreign trade to the profits of the exporter who ships the goods abroad, whereas that is a point scarcely worth considering compared with the advantage to the national industry in manufacturing them. Hence the importance of keeping open every possible outlet for the consumption of our manufactures, without which our capital and artizans must lie idle, the revenue fall off, and the wealth and power of the nation rapidly decay. In addition to this it may be stated, that as every thing which the capitalist and labourer who produce these goods consume, is taxed either directly or indirectly, (which tax is included in the cost of production) you virtually obtain the help of the foreign consumer to pay your taxes, or in other words, you make foreigners contribute towards the national revenue.

London and Bristol Exports.—Amount of colonial goods, 58,000*l.*; ditto foreign ditto, 52,000*l.*; ditto British manufactures, 213,000. Total, 323,000*l.*

The principal articles in these exports are Manchester cotton and India piece goods. The freight, insurance, &c. particularly of the teak timber, hides, palm oil, and those articles collected in the floating trade, compose a large portion of the gross import value of the returns.

Liverpool Exports.— Colonial goods, 13,000*l.*; British ditto, 102,500*l.*; foreign ditto, 5,500*l.* Total, 121,000*l.*

Outward freight, duties here and in Africa, insurance and shipping charges 15 per cent. 666,600*l.* Aggregate amount of the above, 510,600*l.*

The exports from Liverpool are chiefly for the palm oil trade, and the cargoes are differently assorted from those shipped from Bristol and London. The freight, insurance, &c. of the shipping employed in the Trade, constitute a large portion of the cost of the oil. Hence the large gross amount of the returns compared with the value of the exports.

Estimate of National profit thereon.—On colonial goods amounting to 71,000*l.* the value of British labour in transit and other charges (including profits) may be estimated at 30 per cent. thereon [1], 21,300*l.*; foreign ditto, 57,500*l.* ditto 17,280*l.*; British ditto, 315,500*l.* the value of the raw material on an average being 25 per cent. leaves 75 per cent. for labour and manufacturers' profit, 236,625*l.* The shipping employed in long voyages in the palm oil and floating trade is about 16,083 tons, which, at the low estimate of 9*l.* per ton for sailing charges per annum, amounts to 114,747*l.* The shipping employed in short voyages (of six months) in the teak timber and other trades, about 17,000 tons, at 4*l.* 10*s.* per ton, 76,500*l.* Deduct for raw material of stores, &c.

[1] On some articles, on rum for instance, these charges are nearer 70 than 30 per cent. and the average amount cannot be less than my estimate.

15 per cent. 33, 187*l.* 1*s.* Total annual gain to the national industry, exclusive of ship-building, 463,234*l.* 19*s.*

N.B. Of this sum of 463,234*l.* 19*s.* one-third may be estimated as paid to the revenue in the consumption of exciseable and taxed commodities, consumed by the labourers and artizans to whom the trade gives employment, amounting to the sum of 154,411*l.* 13*s.* carried to Statement No. 2.

No. II.

Estimate of the annual duty on Imports from the British Possessions on the West coast of Africa, between the Gambia and Angola.

Imports, London and Bristol.	gross import value.	*Import Duties Thereon.*	
Timber, 15,000 loads	£127,500	Duty	£7,500
Bees'-wax, 200 tons	28,000	Excise and Customs.	8,000
Hides, 60,000	12,000	Duty	500
Ivory, 72 tons	25,200	Ditto	1,400
Palm oil, 1,200 tons	36,000	Ditto	3,000
Sundries, including gum Senegal, &c.	20,000	Ditto	1,000
Gold, 45,000 oz. at 75*s*	168,750	Ditto ... nil.	
Bills	25,000	Ditto	
	£442,450		£21,450
Liverpool Imports.			
Palm oil, 9,000 tons	£270,000	Duty	£22,500
Ivory, 65 tons	22,750	Ditto	1,300
Gum copal, 15 tons	900	Ditto	840
Timber, 3,000 loads	25,500	Ditto	1,500
Bees'-wax, camwood, barwood, &c.	25,000	Ditto	1,222
Gold, 3,000 oz.	11,250		
	£355,400		£27,362

Duty on policies of Insurance	3,150	0
Ditto, Customs outwards	1,500	
Revenue from Labour, as per Statement No. I.	154,411	13
Total annual gain to the Revenue from this trade,	£207,873	13

Balance.—Gross amount of imports as per No. 2.	797,850	0
By direct annual gain to the Revenue, brought from No. 2.	207,873	13
Balance of national industry, being the difference between the sum of 463,234*l.* 19*s.* as per Satement No. 1, and 154,411*l.* 13*s.* charged to the Revenue as above	308,823	6
Total annual gain to the nation, direct and indirect, exclusive of ship-building, &c.	£516,696	19
Nett cost of Foreign goods, deducting transit and other charges	89,450	0
Cost of raw materials for English manufactures, including Iron, Wool, and other articles wholly of English growth and production.	78,875	0
Insurance	35,000	0
Interest on capital $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. returns not in cash on an average in less than 18 months, merchants in England and traders' profit in Africa	77,828	0
	£797,850	0

Social State and Future Prospects.—Of the domestic condition of the people in Western Africa we know but little,—and that little, while it is favourable to our hopes of improvement, leads us to lament the more the terrible and sanguinary political despotism spread over the whole continent. Our own settlements have made no slight progress in social improvement; life and property are secure; and ex-

ample and education are now exercising their all powerful influence; time, and a wise and generous policy on the part of England, will do the rest, if England compel Spain and Portugal to cease the nefarious and extensive slave trade now carried on under their flags[1]. Sierra Leone and Gambia ought

[1] I give the following on the authority of Mr. Nicholls, the Secretary to the African Committee. In order to prevent slave vessels bound to Whydah and Bagadry, from purchasing their cargoes at these great marts, it would be desirable, that a soldier or two should be placed at Dix Cove and Winnebah, to hoist the British flag, and by British influence prevent canoes being supplied, without which at the above mentioned ports no slaves could be procured. The Governors of St. George D'Elmina (Dutch) and Christiansborg (Danish), are imperatively forbidden by their respective governments, to allow the natives to supply canoes, or in any way mix themselves up in the carrying on a slave trade; and this country, in conjunction with France, are in a situation to command the total abolition of that trade by Spain and Portugal, declaring that any person found engaged in it should be considered as a pirate. Unless some strong measures are adopted, and that speedily, the legitimate African trade must be annihilated, for the natives will not sell produce except to those who purchase their slaves. If this object could be attained, the natives would turn their attention to cultivation, and by encouraging the growth of the palm nut, in a few years the quantity of oil would be so great as to preclude the necessity of Russian tallow being used in the manufacture of soap; moreover, by eradicating wholly slave commerce, we would relieve the country from the expences of a large naval force, and also from another large item of expenditure, hard money, for captured negroes. The establishment of a few steam vessels on the coast would be productive of much good in checking the slave trade, and a permanently stationed steam-boat for communicat-

to be placed on a similar footing of government with Cape Coast Castle and Accra, subject to the controul of the Colonial Office and Parliament. Experience shows, that by judicious management the two latter settlements are as well taken care of at present as when five times their existing expenditure was laid out upon them under the old system. Sierra Leone and its dependencies were too long under the jobbing and speculating management of a certain party, who, under pretence of 'saving government the trouble of thinking,' interfered to divert the generous aid of the legislature, granted for the improvement of the Africans, into channels of private gain. When the purposes of this party were served, and they found it impossible longer to dupe the British nation, the failure (as they said) of our settlements in Western Africa was owing to the deleteriousness of the climate, and the indolence and apathy of the natives; the public, without examination, took for granted the assertions of men who made a cloak of religion to cover their worldliness; and Western Africa, that once excited the attention of the best and noblest in England, is now scarcely thought of, except by a few good men who have penetrated the veil of vice and folly which encircled a cause hallowed in itself, and even pregnant with vast benefits to England. Africa will yet arise from the deadly sleep of ages, and from the effects of three centuries of unparalleled desolation, which Europe has spread

ing between the Gambia, Sierra Leone, &c. would be a desirable measure.

over a beautiful and fertile land;—and I trust Britain will reap the reward of a bright career of philanthropy, by being made, through the medium of commerce, the instrument under the guidance of Providence of rescuing millions of our fellow creatures from a long night of ignorance, bondage, and crime.

BOOK IV.

CHAPTER I.

STEAM NAVIGATION THROUGH THE ATLANTIC AND INDIAN OCEANS—PROPOSED PLAN OF POST OFFICE STEAM PACKETS VIA MADEIRA, ST. HELENA, CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, ISLE OF FRANCE, CEYLON, &c.—ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF THE RED SEA AND CAPE OF GOOD HOPE ROUTE BALANCED—COMPUTATION OF THE EXPENSE OF TWELVE STEAM PACKETS, &c.

The facilitating and accelerating of the communication between Europe and Asia will be equivalent to the annihilation of space, or the application of a lever which would have the power of bringing into closer approximation two distant continents. The public mind in both hemispheres is now being directed to so highly important an object, and private munificence and liberality appealed to for the accomplishing a national good: this is obviously improper, for the governments both in India and in England have made the post-office department a monopoly in the hands of the executive authorities; with those should the opening of the post-office system originate, and by those only indeed can it be efficiently executed. That the governments of India and of England may not only without pecuniary loss, but with considerable profit, open a steam-packet post-office communication with India, is demonstrated by the following table:

Monthly Post-office steam-packets between England and India,
Receipts for

Letters, Newspapers, Periodicals, Law Papers, and Accounts; Bullion, Specie, and Jewels; small Packages, and Passengers out and home annually.	Madeira.		Cape Verd Islands.*	Branch P. — Sierra Leone, Gambia, &c.		Ascension and St. Helena.		Cape of Good Hope.		Isle of France.	
	Annual No. of Letters, Newspapers, &c.	Annual Post-Office Receipts.	Depot for Coals.	Annual No. of Letters, Newspapers, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.
		£			£		£		£		£
Letters (single and double) average†	6000	..	..	6000	...	2000	..	24000	..	12000	.
At an average postage each	at 1s. 6d.	450	..	at 2s.	600	at 2s.	200	at 3s.	3600	at 3s. 6d.	2100
Newspapers (daily and weekly) average	3000	..	..	5000	..	2000	..	10000	..	5000	..
At an average postage each	at 2d.	25	..	at 3d.	62	at 3d.	25	at 3d.	125	at 3d.	62
Monthly, Quarterly, and Annual Journals, avge.	200	..	..	500	..	150	..	2000	..	1600	..
At an average postage each	at 1s.	10	..	at 1s.	25	at 1s.	7	at 1s. 6d.	150	at 1s. 6d.	120
Law Papers, Commercial Accounts, &c.	2000	..	..	1000	..	500	..	5000	..	3000	..
At an average rate per ounce	at 1s.	100	..	at 1s.	50	at 1s.	25	at 1s. 3d.	312	at 1s. 6d.	225
Bullion, Specie, & Jewels, &c. per freight	..	300	..	..	500	..	50	..	300	..	500
Packages not exceeding 10 lbs. weight do.	..	500	..	..	1000	..	500	..	1500	..	1000
Passengers out and home annually	50	..	..	50	..	30	..	15	..	100	..
Rate of Passage-money	at £25	1250	..	at £25	1250	at £25	750	at £35	5250	at £40	4000

* We ought to have possession of the Cape Verd Islands, as links in our

† The number of letters here given are taken from the returns in the Parliamentary papers on
that proposed by

via the Cape of Good Hope, &c., and computation of annual Postage, &c.

Branch P.				Branch P.		Branch P.						
Swan River, V. Diemen's Land, N. S. Wales.		Ceylon.		Penang, Malacca, Singapore, and China.		Bombay.		Madras.		Calcutta.		Grand Total Letters, Postage, &c.
Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts.	
40000 at 4*s.*	£ 8000	12000 at 5*s.*	£ 3000	10000 at 6*s.*	£ 3000	63400 at 6*s.*	£ 19040	92134 at 5*s.* 6*d.*	£ 25336	138673 at 6*s.*	£ 41603	No. 406209 £106929
30000 at 4*d.*	500	6000 at 4*d.*	100	10000 at 5*d.*	213	60000 at 6*d.*	1500	100000 at 6d.	2500	300000 at 6*d.*	7500	No. 531000 £12602
5000 at 2*s.*	500	2000 at 2*s.*	200	2500 at 2*s.* 6*d.*	312	10000 at 2*s.* 6*d.*	1250	15000 at 2*s.* 6*d.*	1875	30000 at 2*s.* 6*d.*	3750	No. 68950 £8198
10000 at 2*s.*	1000	4000 at 2*s.*	400	6000 at 2*s.* 6*d.*	750	10000 at 2*s.* 6*d.*	1250	15000 at 2*s.* 6*d.*	1875	40000 at 3*s.*	6000	No. 93500 £11867
..	200	..	1600	..	5000	..	3000	..	5000	..	10000	£26450
..	3000	..	2500	..	2000	..	5000	..	8000	..	20000	£45000
Total Post-office receipts, independent of Passengers, on a moderate computation												£211046
500 at £60	30000	200 at 70	14000	100 at 70	7000	500 at £80	40000	700 at £70	49000	1000 at £90	90000	£242500
						Grand total Post-office receipts....						£453546

Indian route; they are now merely haunts for pirates and slave ships.

East India Affairs, appendix to "Finance and Commercial," page 999. The scale of postage is the Anglo-Indians.

I have taken the lowest calculation for letters, newspapers, parcels, passengers, &c. passing between both countries, without allowing for the impulse which rapidity of communication gives to commerce and social intercourse, or to the recent changes in the respective relations of the Eastern and Western hemisphere.

My reasons for advocating the Cape of Good Hope route in preference to that *viâ* the Red Sea, or the Euphrates, are—1st. That we would bring into closer and speedier communication the *whole* of our Asiatic and African colonies, whereas by the Red Sea route, even if certain difficulties (to be hereafter noticed) could be overcome, only a part of our eastern possessions would be benefitted :—

2nd. That therefore the prospect of remuneration for the large expenditure requisite is more secure by the Cape than by the Red Sea or Euphrates route.

3rd. That the commercial, political, and social advantages to England and her colonies would be infinitely superior.

4th. That whereas we are mistress of the ocean, and have our route by the Cape open so long as the British trident rules, but we are not masters of Egypt, Syria, or Persia, on the contrary we are not only at the mercy of Mehemet Ali's successors, but subject to the caprice of the French and Russian governments in their intrigues with the Porte or the Pacha. [This chapter stands as it was printed in the first and second editions of my large work (Vol. I. Asia)—and the want of practical success in Colonel Chesney's expedition is now fully demonstrated.]

5th. In the event of war the Red and Mediterranean Seas' narrow route would be (particularly in Europe) very hazardous both for letters and passengers, and much less secure than on the highway of the ocean, independent of the liability to complete interruption for years, and the consequent loss of the capital embarked in the undertaking.

6th. That although the travelling distance is greater by the Cape than by Egypt, yet, owing to quarantines and numerous impediments, it is in reality shorter, and would be practically found so by comparing twelve voyages by either route, even under the now most favourable aspect which Egypt and Persia presents, but which would be entirely reversed on the breaking out of hostilities.

7th. That the delay (if it be admitted for argument sake) of a few days by the Cape route as compared with the Red Sea, or Euphrates, is far more than counterbalanced by the numerous British possessions it brings into close contact, and by the route being much healthier for Indians or Europeans over the health invigorating ocean, than over the burning sands of Egypt, and plague infested delta of the Nile. [Plague is now (June 1835) raging furiously at Alexandria.]

8th. That depots of coal can be more expeditiously, and cheaply provided from England, from Calcutta, and New South Wales, where coal mines are now in full work, and from Ceylon, and the Cape of Good Hope, where they exist, but have not yet been worked, than by the tedious shipments of fuel from

England to Alexandria, and from Calcutta to Bombay and the isthmus of Suez.

9th. The voyage may be as safely performed *viâ* the Cape (if not more so than against the monsoon in the Red Sea,) as by the Mediterranean and Red Sea, as demonstrated by Captain Johnson, in the Enterprize steamer, while the improvements which have taken place in steam navigation since 1825, and the experience derived from the voyage, demonstrate the certainty and despatch with which the Cape route may now be effected [1].

Mr. Perkins proposed to build a steam ship of 1000 tons, carrying 800 tons of coal, to make no stop between London and Calcutta, and to perform the voyage (13,700 miles) in 60 days! The following was the run of the Enterprize under the various disadvantages attendant on a first experiment, with the very limited powers of an 120 horse engine, and with only one depôt of coal, at the Cape of Good Hope. She left the land on the 16th of August, 1825; reached Calcutta on the 7th of December, 1825; that was 113 days (of which she was 103 actually under weigh) from the land to Diamond Harbour. She used both sail and steam. The greatest run by sail in 24 hours was 211 miles; the least, 39: the greatest by steam assisted by sail, 225; the least,

[1] I have doubled the Cape of Good Hope many times and have crossed the Irish Channel in winter frequently, but the weather and danger of the former was nothing almost compared with that of the latter. It is now well known that a steamer is more buoyant and better adapted to ride out a gale than a mere sailing ship.

80: the greatest heat in the engine-room during the voyage was 105°, the air at the same time being 84½°. The total distance was 13,700 miles; and the consumption 580 chaldrons of coal, being nine chaldrons per day for 64 days; the rest being under sail. The speed of the engine in calm weather was eight knots an hour, the log giving nine, from the wash of the paddles. Mr. T. L. Peacock states that coals burnt in the Red Sea cost 7*l.* per ton. Lieutenant Johnson states that there should be depôts of coal at Lisbon, at Madeira, at one of the Canary Islands, at Cape Verd, Cape Palmas, Ascension, St. Helena, the island of St. Thomas, at St. Philip de Benquil, at the Cape of Good Hope, in Algoa Bay, Port Dauphin, Isle of France, at Diego Garcia, Pono Molubque, if anchorage for a hulk can be found at that place, Point de Galle, at Trincomalee, at one of the Andaman or Nicobar Islands, at Madras, and at Calcutta; and, in the passage to Bombay, it would be necessary to have one at Delagoa Bay, at Joanna, at the Seychelles, Cochin, and at Bombay. By this means, says Lieutenant Johnson, the average voyage to India would be eighty days, while the fair average for sailing vessels is 120 or 130 days. Another plan proposed for speedy communication with India, *viâ* the Cape of Good Hope, is to fit a steam engine of thirty horse power into a fast vessel of 600 tons, to use it only as an auxiliary to move the vessel through calms, &c. Vessels thus constructed would be applicable to commercial purposes, the sacrifice required would not exceed from 100 to 130 tons, and the

average voyages to Calcutta would be from eighty-five to ninety-five days.

Several persons, namely, Captain Chesney, Mr. Bowater, &c. are sanguine as to the facilities and speed with which the passage to India can be made, *viâ* the Euphrates or Persian Gulf; and Mr. Peacock thinks that, by making the best possible use of every circumstance, the passage to Bombay from an English port may be made in five weeks. The course would be across France to Marseilles or Trieste, thence by steam to Latichea, thence by land to Beles, thence by steam down the Euphrates to Bussorah, thence by steam again to Bombay. A great deal of trade is at present carried on from Bagdad to Damascus, by a line which crosses the Euphrates at Hillah, and from Hillah to Bussorah on the Euphrates, and from Bussorah to Bagdad on the Tigris. Over-land dispatches from Bombay principally—1st, Bussorah, Great Desert, Aleppo, Constantinople, Venice, London, 4804 miles; 2nd, Bussorah, Bagdad, Mosul, Diarbekir, Constantinople, London, 5116 miles; 3rd, Red Sea, Suez, Alexandria, Venice, London, 5492 miles. The distance from Bombay to Bussorah is 1600 miles, and thence to Aleppo 718 miles by land; from Bombay to Suez 3000 miles; from Suez to Cairo 70 miles; from Cairo to Alexandria 140 miles by the river. Russia, in fact, is at present planning her route to India, and extending the facilities to this purpose. It is a doubtful point whether by adopting a line of communication with India *viâ* the Euphrates or Red Sea, we would not be smooth-

ing the road for the Autocrat's troops. It is in evidence before parliament, that the Russians have been accurately surveying the river Oxus and all the country to India, with great care; they prefer this route to India rather than Alexander's through Persia, as in the latter, a large army would suffer by want of water. The projected Russian route to India is by the Wolga into the Caspian Sea (on which, as well as on the Wolga, they have steam navigation) across the Caspian to the Gulf of Mertvoy. Then there are 100 miles of land to the sea of Vral, where there is abundance of coal; then there is the navigation of the Oxus, on which there is now a great deal of traffic, by Khiva, where a Russian Military colony has been established. Or the Russians may come down the Euphrates or the Tigris on rafts, which could be put together with great rapidity to any extent: then might they so establish themselves at Bussorah, that it would not be easy to dislodge them, and they could build sufficient shipping at Bussorah with timber floated down from Armenia. Is it then wise or prudent of England, on the one hand, to facilitate the progress of Russia to India *viâ* the Euphrates; or of the French *viâ* Egypt? These considerations, in a political point of view, ought to prompt the British government to give every facility to the route to India *viâ* the Cape of Good Hope; and as to cutting a ship canal from Cairo to Suez (the difference in the height of the Mediterranean and Red Sea (10 feet) being remedied by locks), at an expense of 700,000*l.*, the result would be to throw the eastern commerce of the British possessions

into the hands of the French and other foreign ports in the Mediterranean. In a political and commercial point of view, the establishment of steam navigation with India *viâ* the Cape of Good Hope is of the utmost value without any of the drawbacks as detailed above [1].

I now come to consider the mode in which my project may be efficiently put into execution. It would be necessary that a packet start on the 1st and 15th of every month, from Falmouth, or Port Valentia, on the West Coast of Ireland [2], and from Calcutta, for the maintaining of which communication, twelve steam and sailing boats of 300 tons each (including the branch packets) would be necessary; the packets to be of a stable and buoyant nature,

[1] I understand that the East India Company are now aware of the impracticability of the Red Sea and Euphrates routes, and are disposed to adopt my plan.

[2] A grand national undertaking,—viz. the connecting Dublin and Valentia harbour by a rail-road, and making the latter the starting station for the American, West India, Mediterranean, and Portugal packets—is contemplated by Pierce Mahony, Esq., M.P., whose public spirited efforts have already conferred so much good on Ireland. Port Valentia is the most western port in Europe, and vessels sailing thence are not merely free from the dangerous and often tedious navigation of the channel, but they are so far to the westward as to be better situate for beating to the windward against the prevalent westerly gales. The project would be of the utmost benefit in a political point of view, by enabling government, at a given moment, to dispatch troops or ships of war to any point; in a commercial light, it would facilitate trade by a speedier, cheaper, and more certain packet intercourse with all our colonies; and with the United States and foreign

with Gurney's improved engines; tanks[1] to hold the coals, in order that they may be filled with water, to serve as ballast, according as the fuel is consumed (the water to be shipped and emptied by means of the lately invented pumps). The vessels to be schooner rigged, and the masts, chimnies and paddles to strike or ship as occasion demands (in the trade winds and monsoons, the packets would sail when not opposing those periodical breezes, consequently the steam engines would be at rest, and the con-

countries, it would also make the British isles the highway for travellers between the Old and New World—between the eastern and western hemispheres; above all, it would secure to England her maritime supremacy, by affording a constant oceanic ingress and egress, which she was too often denied during the war, by her fleets being windbound in the Channel, and even at the Cove of Cork, for three months. There are many other important considerations which ought to stimulate Government to give every possible aid towards the completion of such a national undertaking.

[1] Lieutenant Johnson says, the Enterprize was capable of stowing thirty-five days' consumption of coal; for eleven days after leaving England he steamed without intermission, and then found himself to the south of the Canary Islands. Lieutenant J. states that he experienced some very rough weather off Cape Palmas; that the steamer behaved very well, and that while a steam vessel's engines remain in order, she is less exposed to danger than a sailing vessel. On opening the Mozambique channel, the Enterprize experienced a heavy gale; the fires were then put out, the wheels disconnected from the engine, and the ship scudded under her main-top and foresail ten knots per hour. 'She steered admirably, answered her helm as well as a ship could possibly do, and behaved in every way like an admirable sea-boat.'—(Evidence before Parliament.)

sumption of fuel saved[1]) and a tube to be attached to the engine for the conversion of steam into fresh water. The packets to carry each four 18 lb. carronades of a side, with two long nine pounders; to be commanded by an officer of the British Navy (salary 500*l.*) with a First Lieutenant (300*l.*); two midshipmen or mates (100*l.* each); a purser, (300*l.*); a surgeon, (300*l.*): two engineers, (250*l.* each); an assistant ditto (100*l.*); one gunner and armourer (100*l.*), one carpenter (100*l.*) and mate (60*l.* each); eight stokers, (60*l.* each); four fire men, (50*l.* each); twelve able seamen, (50*l.* each); and four boys as apprentices (20*l.* each), making a complement of forty hands, and an expenditure in wages and provisioning under 4000*l.* sterling, which for twelve packets would give the cost of wages and provisions at 60,000*l.* a year, and this sum deducted from the Post Office's lowest computed receipts, would leave nearly 400,000*l.* sterling, to provide vessels, engine and fuel. Let us now examine the expense for fuel[2]; and as I have on the one hand estimated the income at the lowest, so on the other, I would desire to

[1] There was no depôt for coals but the Cape of Good Hope when the Enterprize made the voyage.

[2] The application of thermo-electricity as a motive power to machinery will be productive of the most extraordinary results. Instead of a heavy expenditure in fuel, a vessel may cross the Atlantic at the cost of some zinc and copper plates, and a few jars of mineral acid! I understand that a ship is now building at New York for experimenting on the subject. If successful, what a revolution will be effected in locomotive engines, &c.!

compute the expenditure at the highest. The twelve packets would on an average be employed each, two hundred days during the year in steaming (thus scarcely allowing any thing for performing half the voyages to and from India by means of the monsoons, trade, and other favourable winds) making in all two thousand, four hundred days, which at ten tons of coal per day at forty shillings per ton (on an average, allowing for freight to some depôts) would cost 48,000*l.*; thus we see the expense of wages, provisions and fuel, would on an extreme calculation, be scarcely more than 100,000*l.* a year, not one fourth of the Post Office income; but there is another item to be provided for, and that is the wear and tear of the vessels, and the interest of money on their first cost. Twelve steam vessels of 300 tons each, with engines of 160 horse power, may be constructed in England, and amply provided with every requisite store at 20,000*l.* each = 240,000*l.*; allowing 10 per cent. interest, and insurance on the capital thus employed, the annual cost would be 24,000*l.* to which add 26,000*l.* a year for wear and tear, and we have a further charge of 50,000*l.* making a grand total of 150,000*l.* per annum, as the amount of the whole Post Office establishment, to defray which there is an almost certain income of full 450,000*l.* a year, thus yielding at the very outset, a revenue of upwards of a quarter of a million to the state. The facts here brought forward, are submitted to the examination of the government, in the firm belief that on mature reflection it will be found deserving of adoption, not less for the sake of India and the

colonies, than for the welfare of England; for whatever promotes the prosperity of the one enhances in a corresponding ratio the weal of the other. If the transmission even of letters to India, *viâ* Egypt, be adopted, I shall hail it with much satisfaction, as the prelude to a far more important and beneficial undertaking,—namely, the annihilating of at least 5000 out of the 13,000 miles between India and England, and removing our numerous and valuable Eastern Colonies by several thousand miles nearer to the parent state, thus connecting and consolidating our vast maritime empire. Government having made the Post-office establishment a monopoly, is bound to make the attempt; but in England the sole duty of its rulers [of every party] seems to consist in levying taxes and making and unmaking laws,—instead of taking the lead in social improvement. Let us hope that a new era is dawning, when the apathy of Government will yield to the quickening influence of enlightened popular feeling, and that the bitterness of politics will be succeeded by a moral harmony productive of general good.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX.

Gold Coast.—The best part for anchorage in Cape Coast Roads is the flag-staff on the Castle, bearing from north to north-west, in about six fathoms water. Small trading craft may approach nearer, but as a very heavy swell almost constantly sets in, care is necessary not to be too near the breakers. The same bearings may be observed at Annamaboe and Accra, but if the latter fort be brought to bear north-west half west, or north-north-west, in the depth of five fathoms, the difficulty which often arises in weighing the anchor will be lessened. The bottom at Accra is a very stiff clay; and if a ship lies with the fort bearing to the eastward or north in six or seven fathoms, there is a great probability she will lose her anchor in attempting to weigh it. The strength of the current varies considerably along the coast, but its average rate is one mile and a half an hour to the eastward. The sea breeze is much more

regular than on the west coast, and sets in earlier; the land wind is neither so constant, nor of so long duration.

River Gambia.—Bird Island is on the northern shore of the River Gambia: the flag may be seen in common clear weather from twelve to fifteen miles off; it bears from Cape St. Mary north by east half-east by compass. This island may be approached from the westward within three or four miles by any vessel drawing less than twenty feet water; houses have been erected close by the flag-staff for the accommodation of a pilot; and there is a small detachment of the second West India regiment here.

Portindic, Western extremity of the Sahara Desert.—The tall and bare palm or date tree, just above the sea beach ought to bear north-east and by east to a vessel coming to anchor in 'Waterman's Bay.' The best anchorage is about one mile from the shore, in four or five fathoms water. There is less surf in this little bay than in any other part of the Bay of Portindic; and the gum arabic trade, which is always carried on with the Moors afloat is done there with the greatest facility, safety, and advantage[1].

Latitudes and longitudes of places on the western coast of Africa, and the islands adjacent, deduced from the surveys of Her Majesty's ship 'Leven,' and the squadron under Commodore Sir G. Collier:—Cape Bojador, 26·7· N. 14·32· W.; Cape Blanco, 20·50· N. 17·10· W.; Portindic, 18·19· N. 16·3· W.;

[1] It is this Bay which the French have recently blockaded.

Senegal, Fort Louis, 16·3· N. 16·29·W.; Cape Verd. 14·43· N. 17·33·W.; Cape St. Mary, River Gambia, 18·30· N. 16·42·W.; West Bird Island, do. 13·42· N. 16·40·W.; Cape Roxo, 12·22· N. 16·53· W.; Mud Bar, River Pongos, 9·57· N. 13·56· W.; Cape Sierra Leone, 8·30· N. 13·12· W.; Free Town, 8·30· N. 13·5·30· W., (variation of the compass 17·17·W.); Shoals of St. Ann, 8·0· N. 13·40· W.; River Gallinas, 6·57· N. 11·41· W.; Cape Mount, 6·43· N. 11·18· W.; Cape Mesurada, 6·13· N. 10·44· W.; River Junk, 6·7· N.; Settra Kroo, 4·52· N. 8·44·W.; Cape Palmas, 4·24. N. 7·38·W.; Lahou Town, 4·58· N. 4·48· W.; Cape Apollonia, 5·3· N. 2·40·W.; Cape Three Points, W. Cape, 4·45·, 2 7· E. Cape 4·45· 1·59· W.; Dixcove, 4·48· N. 1·55·W.; Tackarary, 4·53· N. 1·42· W.; Succondee, 4·55· N. 1·39· W.; Chamah, 4·58· N. 1·34· W.; Commenda, 5·3· N. 1·27· W.; Elmina Castle, 5·4· N. 1·17· W.; Cape Coast Castle. 5·6· N. 1·10· W.; Annamaboe, 5·10· N. 0·59·30· W.; Tantumquerry, 5·12· N. 0·39·30· W.; Accra, 5·33· N. 0·5·0· W.; Prampram, 5·44· N. 0·12·30· E.; Ningo, 5·46· N. 0·18·30· E.; River Volta, 5·47· N. 0 51·49· E.; Cape St. Paul, 5·47· N. 1·1·49· E.; Quittah, 5·55· N. 1·3·45· E.; Little Popoe, 6·15· N. 1·45·30· E.; Grand Popoe, 6·19· N. 1·57·27· E.; Whydah, 6·20· N. 2·14· E.; Appee, 6·22· N. 2·31·45· E.; Porto Novo, 6·25· N. 2·43·33· E.; Badagry, 6·26· N. 2·52·45· E.; River Lagos, 6·27· N. 3·32· E.; River Benin, 5·46· N. 5·17· E.; River dos Escravos, 5·35· N. 5·20· E.; River dos Forcados, 5·22· N. 5·30·33· E.; River Ramos, 5·9· N. 5·33·30· E.; River Dodo, 4·50· N. 5·38·30· E.; Cape Formoso, 4·28· N. 5·59·15·E.; River Formoso, or first river, 4·28· N. 6· E.; Cape Nun, or second river, 4·17· N. 6·10· E.; River St. John, or third river, 4·18· N. 6·16·30· E.; River St. Michael, or fourth river, 4·16· N. 6·21·45· E.; River Santa Barbara, or fifth river, 4·20·30· N. 6·34· E.; River St. Bartholomew, or sixth river, 4·20 30· N. 6·45·30· E.; River Sombrero, or seventh river, 4·20· N. 6·52·30· E.; Foché Point, 4·21·30· N. 7·10· E., and Rough Corner, 4·22· N. 7·22· E., (entrance to River Bonny); River Old Calabar, (entrance) 4·34· N. 8·38· E.; Bembia, Cape and River,

4·0·2· N. 9·20· E.; Cape Cameroons, 3·54· N. 9·32· E.; River Campo, 2·20· N. 10·3·10· E.; Cape St. John, 1·9· N. 9·29· E.; Corisco Island, E. Point in front of the River Danger, 0·58· N. 9·26· E.; Cape Clara, 0·30·44· N. 9·24· E., and Round Corner, 0·14·29· N. 9·22· E., (entrance to Gaboon River.)

THE END.

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